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Editorial

Scoping Reviews: What is in a Name?

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The editorial dwells upon scoping or otherwise called mapping reviews that have recently come to the fore. Starting to appear from the early 2000s, scoping reviews initially came out in medicine and biosciences. The present-day unprecedented boost in the scoping review quantity is spurred by a general thrust for structured analysis and synthesis of scientific information across fields and disciplines. The authors aim to overview the methodology of scoping reviews with regard to their prospects for social sciences and humanities.

Keywords: scoping review, mapping review, systematic review, umbrella review, meta-analysis, review of literature, review typology, critical analysis, theoretical review

Reviews of literature stand alone among numerous scientific publications. They are produced by expert researchers who structure and evaluate the knowledge across research fields. On average, reviews tend to attract more attention than articles. The tradition of reviews dates back to the 18th century. But even today novel types of reviews turn up. As some authors note "new approaches to review production have emerged that facilitate efficiency, particularly in the context of review production" …, including "… online software platforms, the use of text mining and machine learning" (Elliott et al., 2017).

Starting with the early 2000s, scoping reviews came into being. In the Scopus database, the number of such reviews has been rising since 2015 unprecedentedly fast. The bulk of the reviews come out in medicine and health professions, considerably outpacing other fields. In the 2010s, social sciences and humanities started to turn to some comparatively new forms of reviews, including scoping reviews. Their share in the general pool of scoping reviews is rising, though not as fast to outpace their popularity in medicine.

Typology of Reviews

Taxonomy of reviews as independent and stand-alone published studies may count on diverse criteria: their goals; their scope and volume; search and selection strategies; data extraction and quality appraisal techniques; depth of the analysis; methodology frameworks and so on. M.Grant and A.Booth (2009) offered a 14-type classification. One of the most recent typologies was developed by Paré et al. (2015). They focussed on recurrent first-order constructs, or otherwise defined as dimensions to identify each of the eight types of reviews in their typology. Given the theme of this editorial, we have simplified the typology, boiling down their three types of systematic reviews to meta-analyses and systematic reviews (as compared with their original types covering meta-analyses, qualitative systematic reviews, and realist reviews).

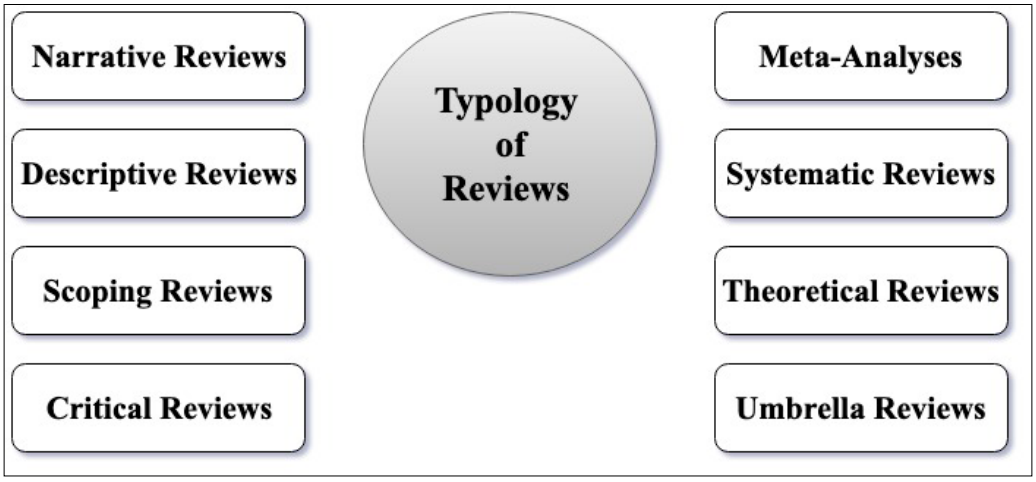

Figure 1. Typology of Reviews.
Note: Adapted from *Information & Management, NL, 52*(2), 183-199. Copyright 2014 by Elsevier B.V.

To decide between diverse reviews, researchers should consider all considerations and limitations. Each type of reviews has some striking features, both strong and weak points in synthesizing previously published studies. True to their name, ***narrative reviews*** overview the literature relating to a field of study in a narrative form. They do not aim to select sources in any comprehensive or profound manner. Narrative reviews "present verbal descriptions of past studies …" and "… are of heuristic value" (King & He, 2005). A non-systematic approach to synthesis coupled with vague methodology constitute major drawbacks of narrative reviews amid a general thrust for structured synthesis of scientific information.

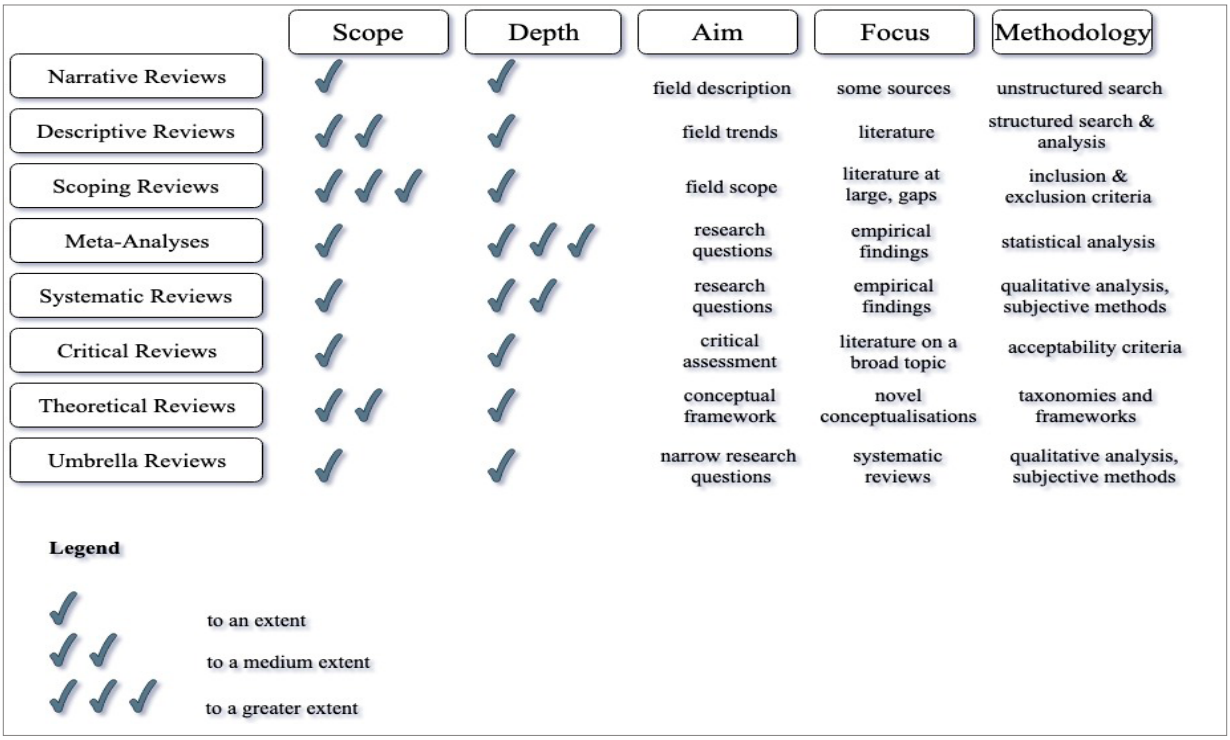

Figure 2. Key Characteristics of Review Types.

Descriptive reviews seek to "collect, codify, and analyze numeric data … found in the extant literature" (King & He, 2005). Being rather broad in scope, they aim to identify the trends in the field. "Each study included in a descriptive review is treated as a unit of analysis, and the published literature as a whole provides a database" (Paré et al., 2015). The prevailing methods applied are content and frequency analyses. Sometimes such reviews are labelled as 'the state of the art reviews'.

"True to their name, ***scoping reviews*** are an ideal tool to determine the scope or coverage of a body of literature on a given topic" (Munn, 2018). This type is relatively novel, but more and more researchers are choosing to conduct such a study as it enables to filter lots of titles and find gaps in the field.

The term '***meta-analysis***' was coined in 1976 by G.V. Glass who defined it as "the analysis of analyses" (Glass, 1976). This form of reviews was rather rare before the 1970s. It is "much less judgmental and subjective than other literature review methods" (King & He, 2005). The primary specific feature of meta-analysis is its focus on research data instead of conclusions of the studies under reviewing. Meta-analyses are more popular in fields typical of evidence-based research.

Systematic reviews "have been considered as the pillar on which evidence-based healthcare rests" (Munn et al., 2018). This type of reviews is thoroughly developed. In an attempt to strengthen "journal research reporting through the use of reporting guidelines" (McLeroy et al., 2012), the scholarly community offers guidelines for producing meta-analysis and systematic reviews. In medicine, systematic reviews strictly follow methodology and has a complex typology. The systematic review methodology may prompt the selection process to get less biased (Knobloch, Yoon & Vogt, 2011). Effectiveness reviews, experimental reviews, risk reviews, prognostic reviews, psychometric reviews and others are found among systematic reviews. Systematic reviews aim "to synthesize and appraise all relevant high-quality research in an effort to answer a specific research or clinical question" (Vrabel, 2015). In fields beyond medicine, this type of reviews is gaining popularity, based on somewhat simplified methodologies.

Some review types turn up quite rarely. They are more narrow-focussed. Their goals are rather clear-cut. In ***critical reviews*** an idea of critical approach is at the core. They "include a degree of analysis and conceptual innovation" (Grant & Booth, 2009). As such, they are narrative or conceptual and may result in building up a hypothesis.

Theoretical reviews, or reviews of concepts are conducted to fill in the gaps by analysing the theoretical framework and building novel conceptualisation. They "use various structured approaches such as classification systems, taxonomies and frameworks to organize prior research effectively, examine their interrelationships" (Paré et al., 2015).

On top of all, the recent trend towards conducting review studies across all fields has resulted in reviews of reviews called '***umbrella reviews***', often referred to as meta-reviews emerging now and then. "Umbrella reviews can be considered a broader term" (Biondi-Zoccai, 2016), covering other similar meta-reviews, including overviews of reviews and meta-epidemiological reviews. This review is defined as a review of compelling evidence from multiple reviews into one accessible and usable document (Biondi-Zoccai, 2016).

Scoping Reviews on the Rise

To estimate the popularity of scoping reviews across all fields over the years of their existence, we extracted data from the Scopus database. After searching Scopus for 'scoping review' as the keyword, we found 3,093 document results with the earliest title published in 2005. The data for 2019 was incomplete as the search brought the documents as of June 29, 2019. One document was indexed for 2020 (see Graph 1).

The annual distribution of scoping reviews is uneven and has been skyrocketing since 2015-2016. The rising popularity reflects the spread of scoping reviews into new fields and disciplines.

The search brought various document types. Of 3,093, reviews accounted for 1,834 documents, articles amounted to 1,062. The articles might be divided into two categories. Their overwhelming majority were mislabelled as 'articles', being true scoping reviews. The remaining few in the category were articles on scoping review methodology or techniques.

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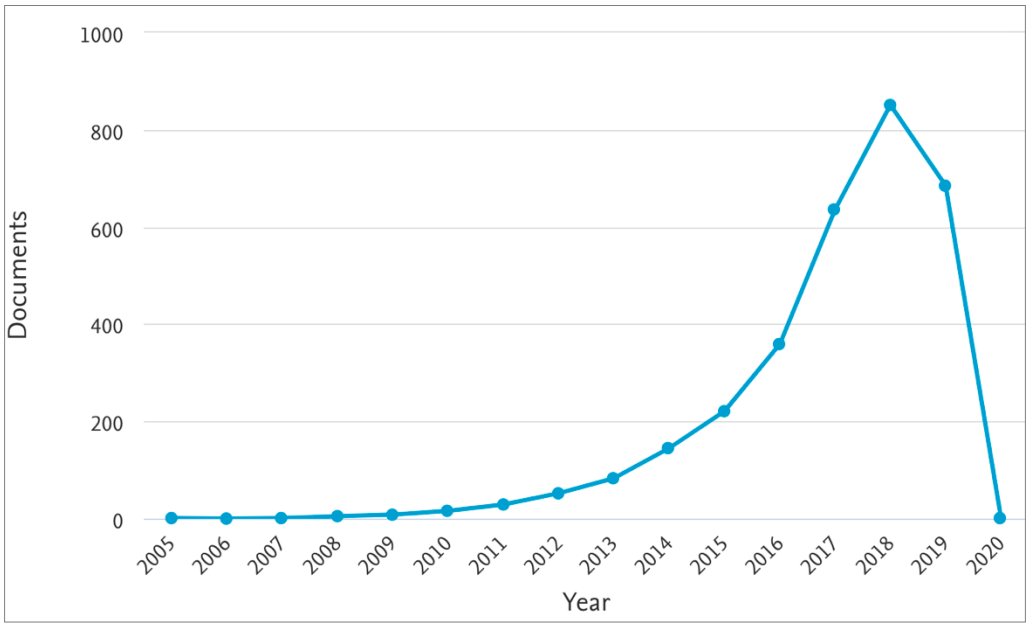

Source: Scopus Database.

Graph 1. Scoping Reviews in Scopus Database Between 2005 and 2019 (as of June 29, 2019).

2,160 documents in the primary search related to medicine. Nursing, social sciences, health professions, and psychology brought 499, 497, 306, and 256 documents respectively. Documents labelled as 'Arts and Humanities' totalled 71. Subjects of most scoping reviews in social sciences and humanities were substantially associated with medicine or health professions.

We also conducted an electronic search for 'scoping study', resulting in 254 documents (as of June 29, 2019), with 1-2 documents dating back to the 1970s and 1980s. The breakdown by publication types shows 159 articles (but most of them are labelled as articles, being true reviews), 44 conference papers, and 36 reviews.

Scoping reviews and studies have a great unrealised potential in social sciences and humanities. Following their framework-based methodology, they might efficiently map emerging fields and revise the established areas to determine their foci trends and detect the existing gaps in the knowledge.

Scoping Review Methodology

Like all scholarly publications in medicine, a scoping review is based on well-wrought methodology framework. It was originally developed by H. Arksey & L. O'Malley (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005), who approached the five-stage framework in a transparent and well-structured manner. All stages fit in a selection and valuation algorithm depicted in Fig.3.

The methodology authors highlight that Stage 1 focusses on refining research questions. Too vague or wide definitions may result in "an unmanageably large numbers of references" (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005).

After having filtered the literature with the inclusion and exclusion criteria in mind, Stage 2 brings the studies relevant to the research aim and questions. The stage implies searching databases, reference lists, existing networks or any other sources. In some reviews, researchers find it useful to hand-search some journals and conference proceedings. In sorting out titles, researchers often redefine search words to provide for a comprehensive title and source coverage. In addition to the search strategy, at Stage 2 eligibility criteria are fixed (Halas et al., 2015). Simultaneously, all duplicates are removed. One should also note that terminology should be clarified at the outset to be sure that no misuse of terms may lead to a plethora of irrelevant papers in the searches. Sometimes foreign (non-Anglophone) authors stick to different terms even when they publish in English, using calques or equivalents for the terms from their mother tongues.

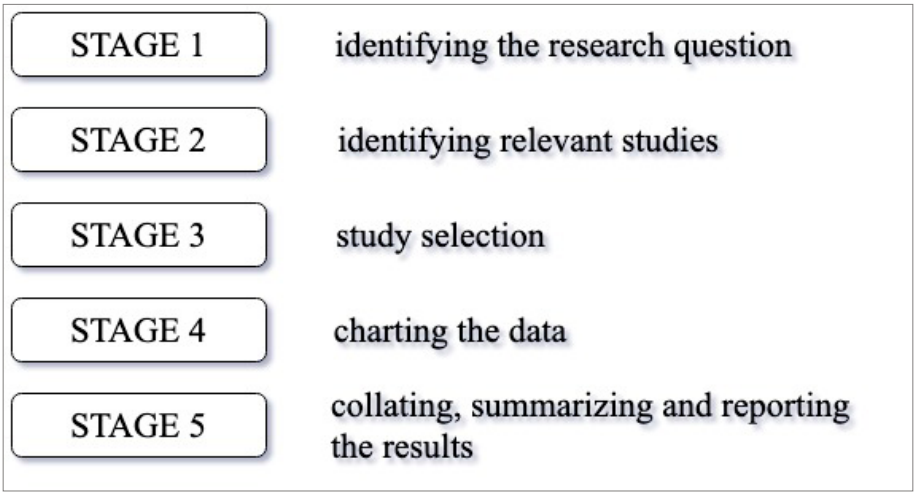

Figure 3. Scoping Review Methodology Framework.
Note: Adapted from *International Journal of Social Research Methodology, UK, 8*(1), 19-32. Copyright 2005 by Taylor & Francis.

During Stage 3, researchers thoroughly assess the selected studies (their abstracts and texts, if necessary) against the inclusion and exclusion criteria to make up a flow chart, reporting the selection results. "Study selection is not linear, but rather an iterative process that involves searching the literature, refining the search strategy, and reviewing articles for study inclusion." (Colquhoun et al., 2014).

Stage 4 embraces categorisation of the titles based on the extracted data. The final stage summarizes the findings relating to the research question(s). At Stage 5, a field scope as well as foci trends and knowledge gaps are identified to reveal if any further in-depth study is needed.

Concluding Remarks

Social sciences and humanities will have to go a long way to come to understanding of review-based knowledge synthesis. With scholarly information rising in an uncontrolled manner, various synthesised approaches to vast volumes of literature would easily provide insights into the state of the art in any field of knowledge. Thus, researchers would get an overview and identify gaps in no time. Reviews are not only synthesised data and information at large, but thorough studies with assessments and analyses. They are "a focal point in assessing the epistemological progress of any field" (Pahlevan-Sharif, Mura & Wijesinghe, 2019). Skills to conduct review studies are essential for any researcher. An overview of literature incorporated in articles of all types is similar to reviews. It is advisable that researchers follow some review methodology frameworks to meet the best practices in overviewing literature.

The present JLE editorial is a glimpse of the review domain for our potential authors and readers to join. New reviews on educational and language issues are sure to enrich the JLE content and help researchers in their further studies.

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A Cognitive Approach to the Instruction of Phrasal Verbs: Rudzka-Ostyn's Model

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English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners find some phrasal verbs problematic because of their idiomatic and polysemous nature. They are frequently used in spoken English and textbooks suggest an arbitrary way in teaching them. Cognitive linguists proposed that the particle plays a major role in determining the meaning of such phrasal verbs. This study investigated the effectiveness of a cognitive approach (i.e., Rudzka-Ostyn's Model) in teaching taught and new phrasal verbs including metaphorical ones. Using a list of frequent phrasal verbs, a quasi-experimental design was used in which an experimental group was required to create mind maps of the common meanings of each particle with example phrasal verbs. The control group, on the other hand, was asked to memorize the frequent senses of the most frequent phrasal verbs along with their translations. The experimental group did not outperform the control group on the post-test. This was attributed to a number of problems such as the fact that some senses given by some particles are not outlined in Rudzka-Ostyn's Model. Further, the analytical procedure followed by students to cognitively understand phrasal verbs should be made explicit and address the interaction between the verb and the particle. Additionally, following a cognitive approach, instructors should focus more on the particles up and out since they have many senses and contribute a lot to phrasal-verb formation.

Keywords: cognitive linguistics, foreign language learners, metaphorical meaning, particle, phrasal verbs, vocabulary learning

Introduction

Phrasal verbs are considered to be troublesome for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners. They are of a huge number and very common in spoken English. Thus, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) claimed that phrasal verbs are "ubiquitous" (p. 425). Gardner and Davies (2007) supported Celce-Murcia's and Larsen-Freeman's argument that learners may encounter one phrasal verb in every 150 words of an English text. As foreign learners choose to avoid them (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Laufer & Eliasson, 1993; Liao & Fukuya, 2004), English native speakers continue to coin more phrasal verbs with ease (Bolinger, 1971; Zareva, 2016).

Further, phrasal verbs are often polysemous and they give a new meaning a new meaning each time they are used in a different context. In a corpus-based study, Gardner and Davies (2007) identified about five meanings for each frequently used phrasal verb (p. 353). In addition, learners found phrasal verbs difficult to interpret because of their unpredictability and non-compositionality (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Cornell, 1985; Moon, 1997; Side, 1990). Thus, countless number of papers have been published to discuss their semantic and syntactic intricacies (Dehé, 2002; Jackendoff, 2002). Moreover, their presentation in textbooks emphasizes their arbitrariness and suggests an unsystematic way in teaching them (e.g., Cornell, 1985; Darwin & Gray, 1999; Gardner & Davies, 2007; Moon, 1997; Tyler & Evans, 2004).

Hence, the present study explores the efficiency of the cognitive approach suggested by Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) in teaching phrasal verbs for EFL learners. Rudzka and Ostyn's (2003) cognitive method was specifically selected for its emphasis on the role that particles play in determining phrasal verb meaning. More specifically, the purpose of the study is twofold. First, it explores the effect of the cognitive approach on students' retention

of phrasal verb meaning. It also examines the effect of the approach on students' ability in figuring out the meaning of new phrasal verbs that were not explicitly taught in class.

Phrasal Verbs

A phrasal verb (particle verb as suggested by Dehé, 2002 or Pelli's, 1976, verb-particle construction) is a construction made of a verb and a particle (i.e., an adverb and/or a preposition). Such multi-word verbs behave as a single syntactic, semantic unit (Darwin & Gray, 1999; Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985). Cornell (1985) claimed that most phrasal verbs are nonidiomatic because their meaning can be derived from that of the proper verb. However, others argued that their meaning is sometimes non-compositional and hence unpredictable. Thus, Dagut and Laufer (1985, p. 74) divided phrasal verbs into three categories: (a) literal (i.e., phrasal verbs whose meaning is the outcome of the meaning of the individual words, e.g., come out, come in, etc.); (b) figurative or idiomatic (i.e., verbs such as stuck up, turn up, let down, patch up, etc., with components contributing a different meaning from that of the individual parts; and (c) completive or aspectual verbs (e.g., start out, eat up, carry on, etc.) with particles indicating completing, starting, or continuing the task.

By the same token, some researchers such as Jackendoff (1997), Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) and Armstrong (2004) argued that the grouping of phrasal verbs should consider the role played by the particle attached to the verb. Thus, phrasal verbs can retain their meaning and the particle is merely directional (e.g., come back) or the verb gives its literal meaning (e.g., read through), whereas the particle gives an aspectual or redundant meaning, and hence such verbs are termed semi-transparent. Nonetheless, the majority of phrasal verbs are idiomatic and non-transparent (e.g., make up for compensate).

Traditional Approaches to Phrasal Verbs

As stated above, traditional approaches (e.g., Fraser, 1976) to the semantics of phrasal verbs viewed them as non-compositional expressions and that the particle plays no role in their meaning. Thus, a number of educators and linguists (e.g., Cornell, 1985; Darwin & Gray, 1999; Gardner & Davies, 2007; Moon, 1997; Tyler & Evans, 2004; Strong & Boers, 2019) criticized the approach used to present phrasal verbs in textbooks. Phrasal verbs are listed in sentences with their definitions in parentheses and lessons are followed by gap-fill exercises. As stated by Moon (1997), "phrasal verbs are often presented as arbitrary combinations which cannot be analyzed and rationalized" (p. 46). Hence, conventional teaching methods suggest that phrasal verbs should be learnt mechanically and that any conceptual analysis of such constructions is futile. As a result, learners will continue to struggle with phrasal verbs used in other contexts beyond their textbook's scope (van der Veer, 2000).

Cognitive Linguistic Approaches to Teaching Phrasal Verbs

The interest in teaching phrasal verbs using the cognitive approach grew out of Langacker's effort in linking language learning to the cognitive processes in the human mind. According to cognitive linguists, linguistic structures are motivated by cognitive processes, such as metaphorization, and that our conceptual system is fundamentally metaphorical. Humans use expressions referring to concrete entities to understand abstract concepts (Lakoff, 1987; Kövecses, 2005, p. 14). Hence, cognitive linguists use the source domain (i.e., concrete objects) to better understand the target domain (i.e. abstract notions such as emotions) (Kövecses, 2005). The prevalence of metaphor in language makes language learning a challenging task (Littlemore & Low, 2006).

Hence, cognitive pedagogists believed that metaphor, conceptualization and symbolism should be emphasized in teaching language (e.g., Gibbs, 1994; Johnson, 1987; Lakoff, 1987; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Langacker, 1987, 2002) and that L2 instruction should consider this cognitive approach to language (Achard, 2008; Achard & Niemeier, 2004). Furthermore, cognitive linguists noted that educators should identify for students the core meaning of a word as its prototypical meaning and then point out other meanings as extensions (Cs´abi, 2004; Verspoor & Lowie, 2003). Further, Morgan (1997) stated that metaphorical meaning is conveyed through the verb, its particle, or both. Lindner (1981) stressed the importance of mapping spatial relations and metaphorical extensions onto image schemata and that particles contribute a bigger portion of meaning. Cognitive linguists noted that particles are stored in the lexicon in a systematic, rule-governed way and hence they challenge the previous view that argued for their arbitrariness (Tyler & Evans, 2004). As for metaphorical phrasal verbs, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) pioneered the conceptual metaphor theory which suggested that the human cognition is

essentially metaphorical. Johnson (1987) believed that image-schemas are the building blocks of figurative phrasal verbs and more attention should be drawn to particles to give visual representations of image-schemas.

Among the most influential contributions to the semantics of phrasal verbs are those by Lakoff (1987), Brugman and Lakoff, (1988), Lindner (1981), Rudzka-Ostyn (2003), and Tyler and Evans (2003). Analyzing the particle *over*, Lakoff (1987) suggested an image schema of a trajector and a landmark. A landmark can be horizontally or vertically extended. The sentences, "The bird flew over the yard" and "The butterfly flew over the wall" are examples of horizontal and vertical extensions, respectively. In some other cases, there is a contact between the trajector and the landmark as in, "John walked over the hill".

However, Tyler and Evans (2003) provided a comprehensive model that accounts for the polysemic nature of particles called the Principled Polysemy Model. As noted by Tyler and Evans (2003), meanings of prepositions are closely related to our embodied experience and our spatial conceptualization of the physical world around us. Thus, *over* can have five distinct senses: (a) above and beyond, (b) on the other side of, (c) completion, (d) transfer and (e) temporal. Central to Tyler and Evans' (2003) model is establishing the basic meaning, which should meet three criteria. For example, the basic meaning is the oldest sense attributed to the particle, the predominant (i.e., the common one) and the one peculiar to the particle. Tyler and Evans (2003) added that the central meaning can be spatially configured (i.e., of the trajector and its landmark) along with its functional element. Consider, for example, the particle *over* which denotes a sense of proximity or that in which "the trajector and the landmark are in each other's sphere of influence" (p.67).

Rudzka and Ostyn's Word Power

Rudzka and Ostyn's (2003) *Word Power: Phrasal Verbs and Compounds* is the first textbook on teaching phrasal verbs using a cognitive approach. Rudzka and Ostyn's (2003) model is based on Lakoff's conceptual metaphor where source domains (i.e., concrete) are used to understand target ones (i.e., abstract) and hence our bodily experience that is of spatial, concrete meaning can be extended to understand abstract states. Thus, the human body as well as the mind are containers. Consider, for instance, the difference between "The little girl stuck out her tongue" and "She thought out a solution to the problem".

The textbook is intended for post-intermediate and advanced students of English and contains about 1,100 phrasal verbs and compounds used with 17 particles and/or prepositions. The authors used insights drawn from the field of cognitive linguistics, such as the central role of the particle, to determine the metaphorical meaning of phrasal verbs. Hence, Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) divided chapters by particles and explained first those with literal meaning before going on to extensions. They emphasized imagery using diagrams containing image schemas and utilized conceptual metaphor where situations and states were viewed as containers.

Using techniques recommended by applied linguists, Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) argued that advanced students will learn metaphorical phrasal verbs if they are focused upon explicitly (i.e., through tests and exercises) and their instruction is systematized. Furthermore, such words are well-learnt if students write them out and activate them orally (Garnier & Schmitt, 2016; Wang, 2009). Therefore, words should be embedded in contexts and taught with their collocates. The book contains a number of activities that can be done horizontally (i.e., with students) or vertically (i.e., the instructor). An important type of exercise developed by Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) is called *exetests*. An exetest is a fill-in-the-gap exercise of a number of sentences where students need to choose the correct phrasal verb. The first letter of the phrasal verb is given between parentheses and in some cases no clue is given. As reported by Kurtyka (2001) and Thom (2017), such exercises help in learning phrasal verbs and retaining their meaning.

Previous Studies on the Cognitive Instruction of Phrasal Verbs

There are a few studies in the literature that have followed the cognitive approaches cited above in teaching phrasal verbs to EFL learners. For example, Kövecses and Szab´o (1996) worked with Hungarian learners of English to compare two groups learning idiomatic phrasal verbs. One group was given a list of phrasal verbs with their Hungarian translations, whereas the second was instructed through orientational metaphors (i.e., concepts are spatially represented) (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). In a gap-filling exercise, researchers reported that the latter outperformed the former, though the test included other new phrasal verbs. However, they focused

only on 10 phrasal verbs with the particles *up* and *down*. Likewise, on a text-based gap-filling exercise, Boers (2000) compared the performance of L1 French EFL learners in a group that learned through orientational metaphor to one that learned through textbook explanation of multi-word verbs. He reported that the metaphor group excelled over the other with respect to their performance on previously taught words. Nonetheless, the cognitively instructed group performed comparably to the other in terms of new multi-word constructions. Nevertheless, Boers' (2000) in-class instruction handled 26 phrasal verbs with *off*, *out*, *on*, *in*, *up*, *down*, *through*. Further, Nhu and Huyen (2009) used the cognitive approach by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) to teach phrasal verbs having the particles *in*, *out*, *up*, and *down* to Vietnamese students who were English majors at Thuc Hanh High School. Participants were asked to fill in the blanks with phrasal verbs or particles. Results showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group at guessing the meaning of unfamiliar phrasal verbs.

Similarly, Talebinejad and Sadri (2013) focused on 20 phrasal verbs with the two particles *up* and *down* and worked with 60 Iranian EFL learners who were at the intermediate level of language proficiency. Students were assigned to two groups (i.e., experimental and control) where the control group was given lists of phrasal verbs with their dictionary definitions. The experimental group, however, was instructed using the cognitive model suggested by Tyler and Evans (2003). T-test results showed that the treatment group excelled at recalling the meaning of learnt phrasal verbs and they successfully transferred their cognitive knowledge of learnt phrasal verbs to unfamiliar ones. By the same token, White (2012) worked with two groups of EAP (English for Academic Purposes) university L2 learners mainly from China, South Korea and Taiwan. The study was carried out over seven weeks. The researcher adopted the cognitive approach along with Vygotsky's sociocultural theory to reach what is called *conceptual mediation*, where students are prompted to create their own image schemas. The researcher followed four steps in which students were exposed to phrasal verbs in class as constructions that can be "conceptually motivated" (p. 422). Then students were required to collect phrasal verbs and discuss their meanings in small groups. After that, the researcher prompted students to draw and share phrasal verb meanings. When sharing meaning, students were allowed to refine their understanding of phrasal verbs. The researcher emphasized that inferencing (i.e., not memorization) is a good way to deal with figurative meaning as suggested by Lazar (1996). The technique would also promote longer retention. The test administered after the treatment consisted of contextualized, new phrasal verbs where students were asked to infer their meaning. T-test results showed that students' performance on the post-test was modest and hence it was not significant. The researcher suggested that instructors should focus on frequent phrasal verbs that have been emphasized in corpus-based studies or include those found in course books. It is important to note that White (2012) considered six particles (i.e., up, out, through, off, down, in) and discussed in class only phrasal verbs collected by students.

In another study by Karahan (2015), 63 Turkish EFL learners studying at a public university took part in a research investigating the effectiveness of the cognitive approach (i.e., orientational metaphors) in teaching phrasal verbs with *up*, *down*, *into*, *out*, *off*. The author did not follow a particular approach. On a gap-filling exercise, the treatment group did not perform significantly better than the control group, which was encouraged to give the translation of each phrasal verb with an example sentence. The researcher recommended that dividing phrasal verbs according to the meaning of their particles will make explicit phrasal-verb instruction more efficient.

More recent investigations were by Milošević and Pavlović (2017) and Lu and Sun (2017). Milošević and Pavlović (2017) explored the semantics of phrasal verbs related to plant growth focusing on those having the particles *out*, *off*, *up*, *through*, *in* and *away*. Though Milošević and Pavlović (2017) did not adopt a specific cognitive model, they noted that phrasal verbs contribute a general meaning and a specific one. The general meaning which can be metaphorical results from the particle, whereas the specific meaning results from conceptual metonymies peculiar to the verb. For instance, in *sprout out, stem out and bud out, out* contributes a meaning of *accessibility* besides the specific meaning *manner of action for the action* given by the verb. On the other hand, Lu and Sun (2017) worked with Chinese learners of English to determine the effect of the cognitive approach on students' retention of phrasal verb meaning. Similar to other researchers, Lu and Sun (2017) referred to the cognitive approach they selected as orientational metaphor. They took into consideration other variables such as students' English proficiency level and types of memory involved. Results indicated that orientational metaphor has a positive effect on students' long term memory. Postgraduate students were better than juniors on the post-tests in terms of accuracy. However, the experimental group did not perform better than the control group.

Other similar studies to the present study have been conducted by Yasuda (2010) and Spring (2018). Yasuda (2010) worked with 115 Japanese students to test the efficiency of orientational metaphors in teaching 21

idiomatic phrasal verbs with the particles *up*, *down*, *into*, *out* and *off*. The taught phrasal verbs were selected because they were frequently used in idiom textbooks for Japanese students. The control group was required to memorize Japanese translations of the phrasal verbs, whereas the experimental group were instructed to pay attention to the particle to determine the meaning of the whole string. In-class instruction for both groups did not last for more than 10 minutes. In a gap filling exercise, students were asked to fill in the blanks with appropriate particles. The test included 15 explicitly taught phrasal verbs and 15 new phrasal verbs. Results indicated that the experimental group performed better than the control group. Spring (2018), on the other hand, benefited from Garnier and Schmitt's (2015) list of frequent phrasal verbs to extract another list of frequent particles, namely *up*, *down*, *in*, *out*, *on*, *off*, *back*, *away*, *after*, *under*, *over*, *across*, *along*, *about/around*, *through*, *apart*, *together*. Believing that the meaning of a phrasal verb results from a conflation between the verb and its particle (Talmy, 1985), Spring (2018) proposed some frequent senses for such particles to account for 95% of phrasal verb meanings. Thus, Spring's (2018) approach was based corpus linguistics and Talmy's cognitive theory of event conflation. According to Talmy (1985), since English is a satellite-framed language, motion, change and temporality are conveyed by the particle. Spring (2018) conducted his study with 75 Japanese learners of English in which the experimental group was taught phrasal verbs using the conflation method, whereas the control group was instructed on phrasal verbs as whole units. He found that the conflation group outperformed the control overall, but especially on uncommon phrasal verbs, which were not explicitly taught. However, Spring (2018) also stressed the need for more experimentation on the cognitive instruction of phrasal verbs to learners with many different L1s because he felt that the effectiveness of such lessons may vary depending on the learner's L1 language type.

As shown above, the majority of studies considered a few particles (e.g., White, 2012; Boers, 2000) and a few phrasal verbs (e.g., Talebinejad & Sadri, 2013; Kövecses & Szab´o, 1996), but they all used a gap-filling exercise to test participants' knowledge of the particle. The adopted approach in many studies is orientational metaphors (e.g., Kövecses & Szab´o, 1996; Boers, 2000) as proposed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980). Furthermore, some investigations (e.g., Yasuda, 2010; Spring, 2018) suggested an in-class instruction of shorter duration. However, multiple contacts of longer duration are recommended to ensure effective learning and retention of explicitly taught phrasal verbs (Nation, 1990). As opposed to previous studies, the present study was of longer duration, of a different cognitive approach and addressed 150 frequent phrasal verbs along with 12 particles. Similar to Spring's (2018), the present study was based on Liu's (2011) list which was derived from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and the British National Corpus (BNC). The list is of 150 frequently-used phrasal verbs and their very frequent senses proposed by Garnier and Schmitt (2015). Additionally, akin to Yasuda's (2010) and Spring's (2018), the pre- and post-tests were of taught and new phrasal verbs where participants were required to fill in the gaps with particles.

Corpus-based examination of the most *common* phrasal verbs provides helpful answers for struggling teachers. Lists have been proposed by Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad and Finegan (1999), Gardner and Davies (2007) and Liu (2011) where *frequency*, as a parameter, determines inclusion in such lists. However, with the development of such lists, learners have a greater chance to memorize such two-verb words as whole units (Spring, 2018). Thus, adopting a cognitive model that considers the role of the particle in determining phrasal verb meaning was essential.

Since English is a satellite-framed language (i.e., the meaning of the event is embedded in the verb and its particle where the latter includes the path of motion), Arab learners are expected to face difficulties with phrasal verbs because Arabic is a verb-framed language where the path of motion is encoded in the verb (Talmy, 1985). Selecting a cognitive model that relies heavily on the meaning of one component (i.e., the particle) might help such learners.

As noted above, many native speakers and learners of English struggle as they try to learn and retain the meanings of metaphorical phrasal verbs. Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) attributed the source of this difficulty to the fact that the particle itself is used metaphorically. That is, its literal meaning is extended to abstract domains related to emotions, feelings, thoughts, attitudes and intentions. Hence, the method adopted in the present study was the cognitive approach to teaching phrasal verbs suggested by Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) in their book, *Word Power: Phrasal Verbs and Compounds*. The focus was on phrasal verbs where the authors gave a major role to the particle in determining the meaning of phrasal verbs. The authors used Figure 1 below as the basis to understand different types of phrasal verbs especially transparent ones.

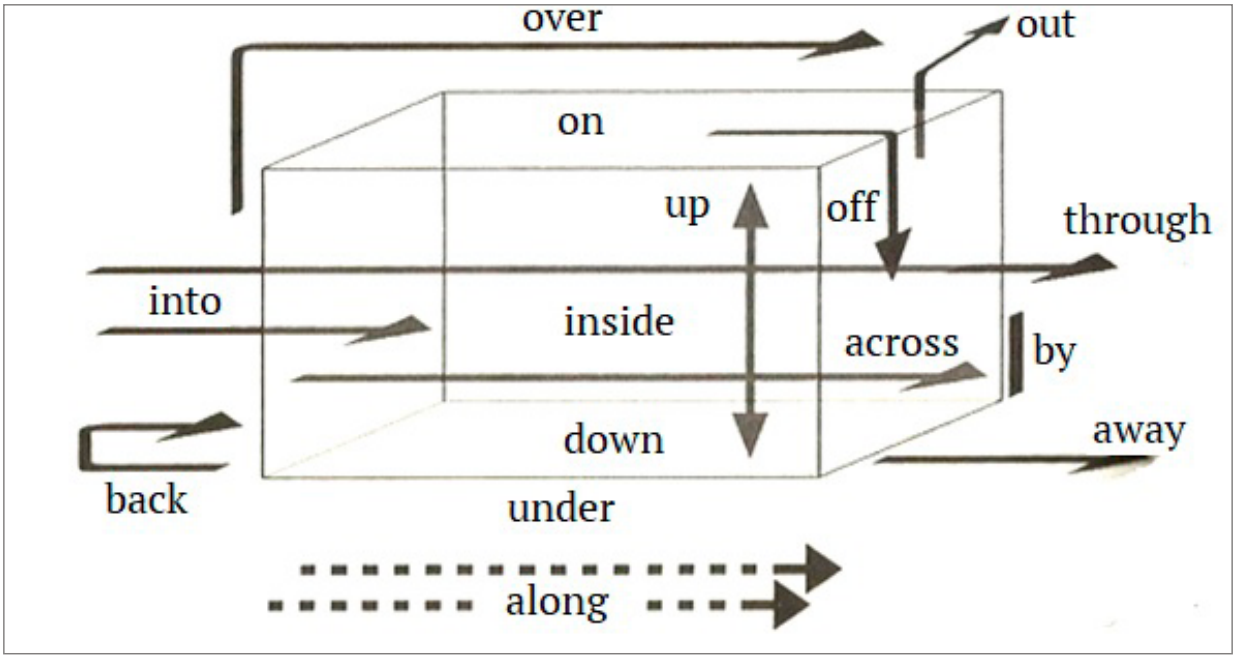

Figure 1. Graphical presentation of particles' meanings (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p. 4).

Research Questions

Based on the research objectives stated above, the present study aimed to answer the following questions:

1. Can Rudzka and Ostyn's (2003) *Word Power Approach* help EFL students retain the meaning of explicitly taught phrasal verbs?
2. Is their approach effective in helping students conjecture the meaning of new phrasal verbs?

Materials and Methods

Materials

In Rudzka and Ostyn (2003), chapters are organized around particles and for each particle a list of possible meanings is included. In this study, the focus was on the 12 particles (i.e., up, back, out, in, on, down, off, through, about, around, along, over) occurring frequently in Liu's (2011) list. Other particles discussed in Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) and were not in the list such as *across*, *by*, *away*, *into* were ignored besides *ahead* since it is used in Liu (2011) only once with the verb *go* as in *go ahead*.

The meanings of phrasal verbs listed in Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) are of limited number and range from transparent to metaphorical ones. Transparent and metaphorical extensions correspond to Spring's (2018) motion and change meanings of particles, respectively. For example, *off* can give any of the following meanings: (a) loss of spatial contact (e.g., peel off); (b) separation as loss of contact (e.g., carry off); (c) separation as interruption of flow or supply (e.g., turn off); and (d) separation due to motion away from its former state, condition or point of reference (e.g., put off) (Rudzka & Ostyn, 2003). Spring (2018) referred to such meanings in terms of motion and change, as move to a position of not touching and become unattached. To aid in learning and understanding, each meaning in Rudzka and Ostyn's (2003) book is supported by example phrasal verbs embedded in sentences and a schema (i.e., a drawing or a mental representation of a spatial relation between containers and moving entities). Using Lakoff's (1987) terms, moving entities are *trajectors* (i.e., entities in the foreground represented by a small dark rectangle) and containers (i.e., background entities represented by rectangles) are *landmarks* (Thom, 2017). Figure 2 below is illustrative.

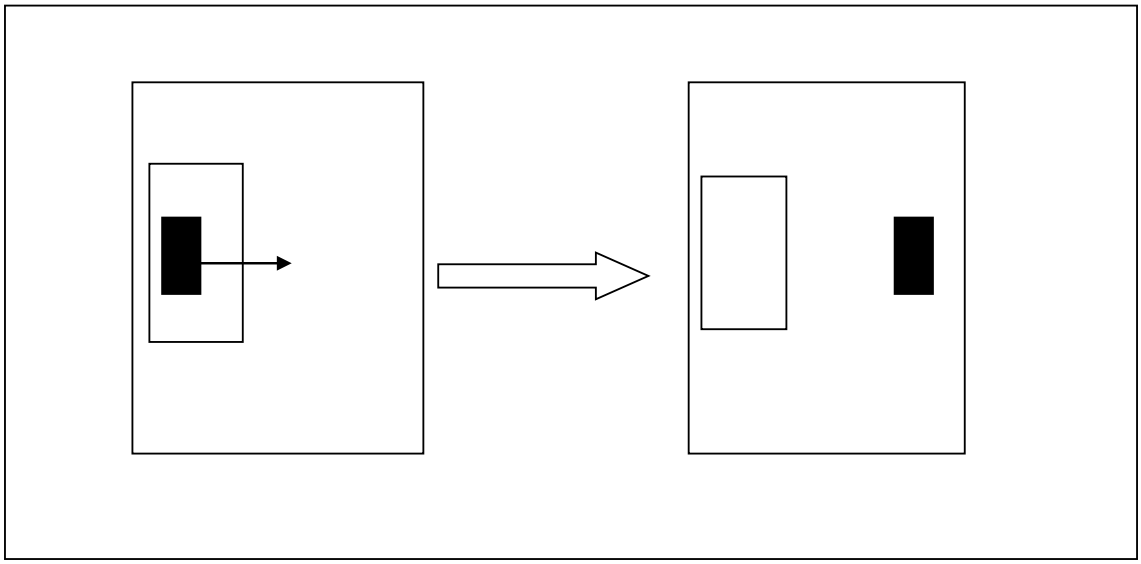

Figure 2. Schematic representation of the particle 'out' (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p. 18).

Pre- and post-tests (see Appendix A) consisted of 20 items. They were similar to Rudzka and Ostyn's (2003) exetests, where students were required to fill in the blanks with particles. The first pair of tests (pre-test and post-test) consisted of 10 items taken from Liu's list or explicitly taught in class. On the other hand, the second group of tests (pre-test and post-test) was composed of 10 new phrasal verbs and students of the experimental group were expected to guess the meaning of such phrasal verbs based on their knowledge of the meaning of the particle. There was a period of six weeks between the pre- and the post-test. To achieve test\re-test reliability, the pre- and post-test was piloted with a sample (n = 15) of a writing class who was not part of the present study. It was administered to the same group on two different occasions (two-week interval). Scores obtained from these two administrations were correlated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Results revealed that the tests showed a high degree of correlation which suggested that students performed similarly on both occasions. Hence, the test scored (r = 0.70) and thus it is considered to be reliable.

Participants

Participants were of two intact groups and were the researcher's students. They were all female EFL Arab college students taking a vocabulary course at the College of Languages and Translation (COLT) for their first time during the first semester of the academic year 2016/17. They were between the ages of 19 and 21. Besides taking an English subject for six years (i.e., middle and high school), participants finished an intensive program in English called the Preparatory Year Program (PYP) where they received instruction (i.e., mathematics, science, etc.) in English. Students were not admitted to COLT if they did not score five in the International English Language Test System (IELTS)[1]. Additionally, they should score a grade point average (GPA) of 4.80 out of 5 (KSU Deanship of Admission and Registration, 2018)[2]. According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (2018)[3], a band score of five can be compared to CEFR's B Levels (i.e., independent user) where the language learner can understand general topics, deal with travel situations, describe their experiences and write on topics of interest. Upper intermediate learners at these levels can understand the main ideas of a technical text, write on a wide range of topics in a detailed manner and interact with natives without any difficulty.

This study began with 62 participants, but the total number of subjects became 51 because of students' irregular attendance and withdrawal, which affected the process of obtaining data. As mentioned above, participating subjects were of two groups: an experimental group (n=26) and a control group (n=25). The control group received

[1] British Council. (2018). IELTS band scores explained. Retrieved from https://takeielts.britishcouncil.org/find-out-about-results/understand-your-ielts-scores/overall-band-scores-explained

[2] Deanship of Admission and Registration. (2018). Online cutoff. Retrieved from https://dar.ksu.edu.sa/ar/node/771

[3] Common European Framework. (2018). How should the CEFR be used by recognizing institutions wishing to set language ability requirements? Retrieved from https://www.ielts.org/ielts-for-organisations/common-european-framework

traditional in-class instruction where they were asked to add their translations to Liu's (2011) list and memorize all the definitions of the most common phrasal verbs in English. The experiential group, on the other hand, was required to create mind maps where examples of phrasal verbs were clustered around each English particle. They created 12 maps corresponding to 12 particles (i.e., *along, around, through, back, down, about, in, off, out, over, on, up*) in English. The essence of the present study was to help students understand the metaphorical meanings of phrasal verbs by extending the literal meanings of all the 12 particles to abstract domains including emotions, thoughts, feelings, etc. The senses of the particles outlined in Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) are around 50. The focus was on the 12 particles advanced above because they contribute immeasurably to the formation of the common 150 phrasal verbs suggested by Liu's (2011) list based on his corpus investigation. A lot of phrasal verbs and their common senses, especially literal ones, were familiar to students such as *pick up*, *come back*, *stand up*, *find out*, etc. It is important to note that this study did not utilize random distribution of participants because they were assigned classes independently of the experiment, but it did fall into the realm of nonequivalent-control-group design, which is generally used and accepted in many educational experiments (Best & Kahn, 1986).

Procedure

The researcher met both groups on the same day that they both were pre-tested. Using Liu's (2011) list, the control group was asked to create a table of phrasal verbs, including their definitions and example sentences besides their translations. On the other hand, the experimental group was instructed to create 12 mind maps corresponding to 12 particles (e.g., down, up, out, in, on, etc.). Such particles make up frequent phrasal verbs found in Liu's (2011) list. The resultant map included the particle as its central bubble and other bubbles of key senses of the particle. For the experimental group, the emphasis was on particles' possible senses and not on the definitions of common phrasal verbs. According to cognitive linguists, understanding particles would hopefully help students derive the meanings of new phrasal verbs.

The key meanings of particles were taken from Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) where they are illustrated through schemata. Students were instructed to match the verbs in the list, with respect to the particle, to their corresponding key senses. Adding more definitions or example sentences peculiar to each phrasal verb was acceptable. Students of the experimental group could create their maps using a computer program or simply by hand. Students of both groups took the responsibility of dividing the work among themselves. The mind map below (Figure 3) is illustrative. It was created as a model by the researcher using a mind-mapping software called FreeMind.

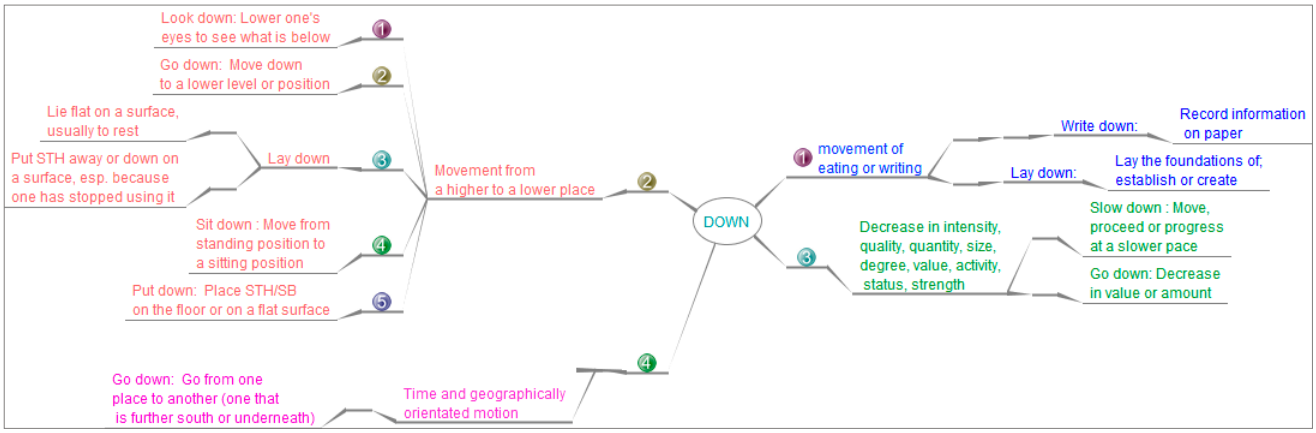

Figure 3. A mind map showing all the possible key senses of the particle 'down' with example phrasal verbs.

Furthermore, each sub-group in the experimental group (i.e., responsible of one-particle map) was asked to solve problems as they were working on the same map and negotiate meaning (i.e., which phrasal verb meaning is best expressed by which particle sense). The instructor's input was kept to a minimum. However, upon submission, students of both groups received feedback where they were required to make some modifications. In addition, students of both groups were instructed to check a recently-created online dictionary (PHaVE Dictionary, 2019) that includes (besides definitions and example sentences) translated sentences having common phrasal verbs[4].

[4] PHaVE Dictionary. (2019). 150 most common phrasal verbs and their most common meanings. Retrieved from http://phave-dictionary.englishup.me/

In addition, the Dictionary provides guidelines for teachers as well as learners on how to use the list along with exercises by Glenys Hanson and Michelle Worgan[5]. The verbs in the Dictionary are in the order from the most common to the least common as suggested by Garnier and Schmitt (2015).

Using paired t-tests, learner performance on pre- and post-tests was evaluated for each group. Furthermore, two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests with one-repeated measure were used to check for a significant interaction between teaching style and improvement to see if one group improved more significantly than the other. The between-groups independent variable was the teaching style adopted for each group (i.e., the cognitive approach selected for the experimental group vs. the translation method for the control group), whereas the within-groups independent variables were time (i.e., pre- and post-test results) and exposure (i.e., new or explicitly taught phrasal verbs). On the other hand, the dependent variable was participants' performance on a gap-filling task. Confidence intervals were set at the 95% confidence level.

Data Analysis

Paired-samples t-tests showed that both groups improved significantly on phrasal verb knowledge overall (i.e., on both explicitly taught and new phrasal verbs). Results of pre- (M= 3.72, SD=2.31) and post-tests (M= 6.64, SD=2.89) of the control group showed significant improvement; $t(24)$ =-5.36, p=0.000. Comparably, the performance of the experimental group on the post-test (M= 7.84, SD=2.86) was significant compared to the pre-test (M= 3.73, SD=2.66); $t(25)$ =-8.66, p=0.000. However, a two-way ANOVA showed that there was no interaction between teaching style(i.e., group) and students' performance on tests; (F (1.49) =2.75, p=.104, η_p^2 = .053, power=.36). The partial eta-squared effect size (η_p^2) revealed that this two-way interaction accounted for only .05 of the variance in scores of the tests, which is a small effect size. In other words, no significant effect was established for groups; F (1.49)=.83, p=*.36,* η_p^2=.017, power=.14. Both groups improved significantly from their pre- to post-tests. Since the independent variables were of less than three levels, the above-advanced results were of the sphericity assumed.

The same statistical test was performed independently for participants' scores on explicitly taught and new phrasal verbs. A paired t-test of the pre-test (M=1.76, SD=1.16) and post-test (M=3.44, SD=1.80) of the control group on their performance on explicitly taught phrasal verbs indicated significant improvement; $t(24)$ =-3.83, p=0.001. Similarly, scores of the experimental group on the pre-test (M=1.61, SD=1.29) and the post-test (M= 4.11, SD=2.04) yielded a significant increase; $t(25)$ =-7.19, p=0.000. As for new, unexposed phrasal verbs, comparing pre- (M=1.96, SD=1.83) and post-test (M=3.20, SD=1.65) scores of the control group showed a significant difference; $t(24)$ = -3.47, p=0.002. Likewise, the performance of the experimental group showed a significant increase in the post-test (M= 3.73, SD=1.58) compared to the pre-test (M= 2.11, SD=1.79); $t(25)$ =-5.70, p=0.000. As shown above, participants performed similarly on the tests of explicitly taught and new phrasal verbs. The mean difference between the control and experimental groups in the explicitly taught category of phrasal verbs (M=.82) is statistically not significant (p=.148). Similarly, the mean difference between the control and experimental groups in the new set of phrasal verbs (M=.68) is also not significant (p=.42). In addition, no significant interaction was found between exposure and time; F (1.49)=3.4, p=*.071,* η_p^2=.065, power=.44.,exposure and group; F (1.49)=.034, p=*.855,* η_p^2=.001, power=.054 and exposure, time and group; F (1.49)=.38, p=*.53 ,* η_p^2=.008, power=.093.

Results and Discussion

Though previous research (e.g., Lakoff, 1987; Lindner, 1981; Tyler and Evans, 2003) focused on a number of particles, such as *over*, *up*, *out*, etc., the present study aimed to help students understand the metaphorical meanings of phrasal verbs through extending the literal meanings of particles. There are around 50 senses of the 12 particles outlined in Rudzka and Ostyn (2003). As indicated in the results above, students of the experimental group showed significant improvement in their retention of phrasal verb meanings and their extension of particles' literal senses to new ones, but they did not exhibit more improvement than the control group, taught through more conventional methods.

[5] Hanson, G., & Worgan. M. (n.d). PHaVE help. Retrieved from http://phave-dictionary.englishup.me/faq/index.html

There are many reasons why there was no statistically significant interaction between teaching style and improvement from pre- to post-test. First, students were required to match the senses of the most frequent phrasal verbs in English with the possible meanings of the 12 particles to create mind maps and to prepare for exams using the maps. However, students sometimes found it difficult to include all the verbs in Liu's list in one map or two (especially those with *up*, *out* and *back*) or include all the possible senses of polysemous phrasal verbs in such maps. *Go down*, for instance, has three common senses. The first one matches the first meaning of *down* suggested by Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) which is movement from a higher to a lower position. The second reflects the third meaning, decrease in value, whereas the third describes the second sense, geographical movement to the south. For some verbs, students were inclined to map the least common meaning or the first meaning only. However, the majority included in their maps the senses that can be easily linked to a particle's meaning.

Nevertheless, during instruction, some students mentioned that they found it difficult to decide which meaning of the particle could match which phrasal verb meaning. With the help of the teacher, students still could not see the relationship between the general sense (pertaining to the particle, found in Rudzka and Ostyn, 2003) and the specific meaning given by the phrasal verb. Consider, for example, the verb *carry out* (i.e., for implementing plans). According to Rudzka and Ostyn (2003), *non-existence* of such plans is viewed as a container and *out* expresses, as one of its senses, movement out of such abstract states. In this case, specifically, it might be more difficult for students to think that an abstract state (i.e., a plan in one's head) should be treated as a container. Further, the sense of the verb, *make up* (i.e., compensate) is not reflected by any of the senses of *up* identified by Rudzka and Ostyn (2003). These are *moving up to a higher place or a higher degree*, *reaching a goal*, *an end or a limit*, *making something visible or accessible and covering an area completely*. Further, as noted by Kissling (2012), not all examples cited in Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) truly represent the senses attributed to the particles.

Identifying 50 meanings for the frequent particles, Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) failed to establish a number of criteria for determining the basic sense for each particle in their book. In addition, they did not clarify how extensions are related to the central sense of the particle (Kissling, 2012). Even worse, in some cases, the authors did not give a convincing reason for each distinct meaning, and sometimes two different senses are given the same representation (Kissling, 2012). For example, in reference to *out*, Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) proposed that the particle may refer to *entities moving out of containers* (e.g., throw out, jump out, etc.), *eating or inviting to eat away from home* (e.g., ask out, take out, etc.), *groups acting as containers* (e.g., sort out, kick out, etc.), *bodies and minds viewed as containers* (e.g., think out, reach out, etc.), *states or situations as containers*(e.g., worn out, run out of, etc.) and *non-existence, ignorance, invisibility, etc. as containers*(e.g., find out, work out, etc.). However, Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) did not specify which sense is central, but the approach they adopted focused on concrete states (e.g., home activities, activities done outside one's home, etc.) before abstract ones (e.g., situations as containers). Further, there is a transition (e.g., one's body or mind as a container) between the two. Moreover, for *off*, Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) specified two similar meanings (i.e., *loss of spatial contact or spatial separation, e.g., chop off, fall of, etc.* and *separation as loss of contact, e.g., set off, cut off, etc.*). In other words, they did not differentiate between the two. They have been also given the same schematic diagram.

Rudzka and Ostyn's (2003) approach as a cognitive approach to the meaning of lexical items holds that the meaning of a phrasal-verb is partially compositional and that one can rely on pragmatics (i.e., background information and embodied experience) and cognitive mechanisms (e.g., metaphor and metonymy) to derive meaning (Evans & Green, 2006; Goldberg, 1995; Langacker 1987, 2008; Taylor, 2002). However, Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) paid more attention to the role of the particle as the main source of meaning (Kissling, 2012) and thus they ignored the verb or how the particle and the verb interact and contribute to meaning. This finding is in line with previous research implications by Spring (2018), White (2012), Karahan (2015), Teng (2018), Conroy (2018) and Cooper (1999) who suggested that instructors should explicitly analyze how partially or fully components in a phrasal verb construction contribute to meaning.

In a research paper by Milošević and Pavlović (2017), the authors proposed that metaphor and conceptual metonymy are important mechanisms for reaching an overall understanding of phrasal verb meaning. As metaphorical meaning is given by the particle, conceptual metonymies stem from the verb. Thus, extending the literal meanings of the particle to abstract states is not enough, as suggested by Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) in their book. The semantic interaction between the verb and the particle is still essential. As noted by Milošević and Pavlović (2017), similar to particles' extensions, conceptual metonymies are of a limited number and they were outlined by Kövecses and Radden (1998). Examples of such metonymic patterns are *instrument for action, agent for action, action for agent, object involved in an action for the action,* etc.

Though there are many studies that addressed the suitability of the cognitive approach to teaching polysemous phrasal verbs for native speakers of English, Lu and Sun (2017) and Spring (2018) confirmed its appropriateness for EFL learners of English, especially whose languages are characterized as verb framed. Lu and Sun (2017) added that for such learners the use of L1 to aid in phrasal verb instruction is highly recommended. Thus, focusing on EFL learners of translations, the present study might yield positive gains for the experimental group if the semantics of the verb was considered and if translations that showed the metaphorical or the metonymic relations were given in class. Spring (2018) further noted that it is essential for EFL learners to realize the typological differences between verb-framed languages and satellite-framed languages through considering the interaction between the verb and the particle. Comparable to the present study, Spring (2018) found that both groups improved significantly on explicitly taught and new phrasal verbs, but ANOVA results indicated a relationship between teaching style and improvement only for new phrasal verbs, which still confirmed the efficiency of the cognitive approach in teaching new phrasal verbs. Spring's (2018) short list of phrasal verb meanings based on Talmy's (1985) theory of event conflation might help Arab learners in conjecturing the meaning of new phrasal verbs, so they do not have to memorize 50 meanings or so.

Based on Liu's (2011) list, particles appearing frequently in phrasal verbs such as *up*, *out*, etc. are known for their polysemous nature and their dual functions. In other words, they play two functions as an adverb or a preposition (hence termed *adpreps*) in any phrasal-verb construction (Bolinger, 1971). Consider, for example, the sentence, "She pulled the tablecloth off the table*",* where *off* can work as part of the prepositional phrase *off the table* and as a phrasal verb component in *pull off*. In both cases, it indicates a completive meaning. Such adpreps should be given more attention in class.

Pedagogical Implications

Although the current study did not find significant interactions between teaching style and improvement, it did find significant differences in pre- and post-tests, indicating improvement, which emphasized findings of previous studies (White, 2012; Karahan, 2015) and highlights a number of implications for future research. For example, it sheds light on the importance of activating students' analytic ability to understand language patterns and internalize its rules (Skehan, 1998). As noted by Yasuda (2010), analytic thinking is an important part of students' metalinguistic knowledge essential for L2 learning. Thus, instructors are advised to employ a think-aloud procedure to refine students' understanding of such constructions and to uncover the analytical procedure followed by students (Cooper, 1999; White, 2012).

In addition, if the focus of using the cognitive approach is to help students retain specific phrasal verb meanings, the instructor can focus on the phrasal verbs in the textbook. However, if the aim is to generalize metaphorical knowledge to new phrasal verbs, the L2 teacher can extend in-class instruction to include more of the most frequent phrasal verbs. The latter is recommended due to the fact that new phrasal verbs are constantly coined. In both cases, the interaction between the verb and the particle should be addressed in class. Moreover, for highly polysemous phrasal verbs, meanings scoring more than 50% of the verb's sense distribution in Garnier and Schmitt's (2015) list are the ones to be considered. Implementing the cognitive approach in class and using a list of frequent phrasal verbs (e.g., Liu's) with different particles will help not only with figuring out the meaning of inherently metaphorical phrasal verbs but with extending metaphorical knowledge to understand compounds such as *downsizing*, *upholding*, *outgoing*, *off-point*, etc. Thus, the ability to conjecture the meaning of new phrasal verbs is very important for learners. Further, as there are many lists for frequent phrasal verbs that can guide lexicographers and educators in lexicography and curriculum design, the researcher found that phrasal verbs with the particles *up*, *out* and *off* should be given more importance because of their multiple meanings and the large amount of phrasal verbs including them.

Future research on phrasal verbs may address how English and Arabic share some similarities in terms of conflation patterns because recent research (e.g., Alhamdan, Alenazi & Maalej, 2018) has proven that Arabic is not a typical verb-framed language. Thus, using a cognitive approach that draws learners' attention to the role that the particle and the verb play in determining meaning is recommended for EFL Arab learners. In addition, translating English phrasal verbs into Arabic or vice versa might highlight the similarities between such languages and how they behave typologically.

Conclusion

Traditionally, phrasal verbs are considered to be non-compositional. Their presentation in textbook emphasizes their arbitrariness. Hence, L2 learners face problems as they try to learn and retain their meaning. The cognitive approach, however, emphasizes the role of the particle in determining the meaning of the phrasal verb (i.e., aspectual, literal and idiomatic). The researcher followed the cognitive approach suggested by Rudzka and Ostyn (2003) in their book to conduct an experiment of six weeks. The control group and the experimental one performed comparably on the post-test which was of explicitly taught and new phrasal verbs. Hence, the researcher suggested that analyzing compositionality of phrasal verbs explicitly with students may help avoid the problems outlined in the study. Further, instructors of EFL learners whose languages are not satellite-framed ought to consider the role that the verb plays in each phrasal-verb construction.

As shown above, the meaning of the particle cannot be examined without any reference to the verb. Thus, besides lists by Biber et al. (1999), Gardner and Davies (2007), Trebits (2009), Liu (2011) Akbary, Shahriari & Hosseini Fatemi (2018) and Liu and Myers (2018) that were based on synchronic investigation of phrasal verbs, diachronic corpus investigation of phrasal verbs is still essential to minimize the number of phrasal verbs taught in class. Future research addressing the effectiveness of cognitive approaches to teaching non-transparent phrasal verbs should include lots of exercises that require students to fill in the blanks with appropriate particles. Using such exercises in class helps students retain the meaning of the particle and it encourages them to extend its meaning to similar constructions.

Despite the shortcomings mentioned above, the approach followed by the researcher would hopefully help students address the issue of learning metaphorical phrasal verbs in a systematic manner instead of viewing them as 'arbitrary combinations' (White, 2012). Outlining metaphorical relations between phrasal-verb meanings and those of particles is well-acknowledged by various researchers (Kovecses & Szabo, 1996; Boers, 2000; Yasuda, 2010; Karahan, 2015). Though metaphoric thinking was widely considered (by L2 practitioners) as a tool peculiar to literature classes, cognitive linguistics proved its validity in L2 classes (Yasuda, 2010).

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Appendix A

Name: _____ Section: _____

Choose particles from the following box to complete the sentences below. Put only letters on the blanks.

a. up	**b. on**	**c. back**	**d. out**	**e. in**	**f. down**
g. off	**h. ahead**	**i. over**	**j. around**	**k. through**	**l. along**

1. Father grabbed the thief and turned him _____to the police.
2. I wonder whether they will get this bill _____the Parliament.
3. The explorers set _____at 5 o'clock in the morning.
4. See if you can turn _____any evidence for his presence on the night of January.
5. He curses and swears till his voice gives_____.
6. I couldn't make _____what he was saying.
7. If your friend wants to come _____on the deal, he'll need to put a lot of money on the table.
8. We're putting _____a concert to raise money for cancer charities.
9. Opposition parties are threatening to bring _____the government.
10. To start up the business, they should each put _____ £50,000.

Name: _____ Section: _____

Choose particles from the following box to complete the sentences below.

a. up	**b. on**	**c. back**	**d. out**	**e. in**	**f. down**
g. off	**h. ahead**	**i. over**	**j. around**	**k. through**	**l. along**

1. The company will have to sell _____assets to avoid bankruptcy.
2. He handed _____his hand to greet us.
3. This bitter medicine is hard to swallow _____.
4. Though he did not believe her, he decided to hear her story _____to the end.
5. The lawyer looked _____the document and disagreed with several points.
6. If you want to keep up your English, tune _____regularly to the BBC.
7. Nobody knows as yet how the secret leaked _____.
8. As the meeting was dragging _____, several members dozed off/dropped off.
9. The demand is such that the factory has to step _____ production.
10. They closed_____ the street because it is going to be re-surfaced.

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Tense and Aspect in the Academic Writing of Arab L2 Learners of English: A Corpus-Based Approach

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This study aimed at explicating the use of tense and aspect in the academic writing of Arab L2 learners of English. The scope was restricted to two absolute tenses (simple present and simple past), perfective and imperfective aspects, and verb-form errors arising from the deletion or addition of the third person singular-s besides the omission of copula and auxiliary verbs. The study was conducted on the basis of a comparative, quantitative analysis of the target forms between a learner corpus and a similar-sized native one. In pursuing and achieving the stated objectives, it also concentrated on the types and sources of the tense, aspect and verb form errors in learners' performance. In addition to the significant disparity between the two corpora in terms of the frequency count and percentage of most of the target forms, the findings confirmed learners' tendency to use more verbs than native speakers. Results also showed that learners' use of the preterit (simple past), and perfective and imperfective aspects were largely constrained by their L1 grammar and semantic interpretation of verbs (independent of the target language norm). Moreover, the findings revealed some common inconsistent erroneous forms attributed to the omission or addition of the third person singular-s and the omission of copula and auxiliary verbs. Several main factors were identified as potentially responsible for learners' errors, that is, inconsistency inherent in L2 rules, learners' limited exposure to (authentic) L2, overgeneralization, redundancy reduction, and language transfer. The findings *suggest the need* to introduce appropriate pedagogical methods to best present the target language rules.

Keywords: tense-aspect morphology, language corpora, Arab EFL learners, second language acquisition, verb-form errors

Introduction

Despite the universality of the concept of time, languages possess different grammatical and lexical means to encode it. This is plainly evident from the different lexical and grammatical units and features that languages have and employ to enable senders and receivers to identify how an expressed event is located in time. Comrie (1985, p. 8) distinguishes between three major categories used to express time: lexical composite expressions, lexical items and grammatical categories.

Lexical composite expressions involve slotting time specifications into the position of a syntactic expression such as *last month, a year ago*, etc. This set is potentially significant in a language that has linguistic means for measuring time intervals. Lexical items, which consist of one-word structures, include adverbials such as *now*, *today*, *yesterday,* etc. Unlike lexical composites and lexical items, grammatical categories involve a set of grammaticalized expressions of location in time. The grammatical expressions of time are temporal notions that are conveyed by means of two different but interrelated linguistic categories, namely, tense and aspect.

Irrespective of the means used to express tense and aspect in human languages, these two categories constitute the core of language and language learning on a broad scale. Moreover, these categories are often used to assess learners' mastery or non-mastery of language skills as they account for a considerable proportion of learners'

errors. Therefore, shedding light on learners' interlanguage and accounting for the sources contributing to their ill-formed output are important for learners, teachers, and curriculum and textbook developers.

This study is devoted to examining tense, aspect and verb form errors in the academic writing of Arab L2 learners of English within a corpus-based approach. In so doing, the learner corpus providing the database of this study has been thoroughly examined with the aim of casting light on and accounting for the major tense, aspect and verb-form errors produced by learners during the course of their mastery of L2. For comparison purposes, the quantitative results have been checked against a similar-sized corpus of native speakers.

Tense and Aspect

Tense expresses the time of an event in relation to a specific reference time, while aspect expresses the duration or completion of an event. Tense is, thus, deictic in that it expresses the temporal location of an event in respect to a specific reference time. Deictic languages, such as English, rely heavily on words and expressions whose meaning is dependent on the context in which it is used. Comrie (1985) defines tense as "the grammaticalized expression of location in time "locating" the time of a situation relative to the situation of the utterance" (p. 9). It may be marked morphologically (by different verb conjugations: 'visit' vs. 'visited'), syntactically by means of auxiliary verbs (shall visit), or even by both of them (have visited). Based on the timeline notion of events, there are three tenses: present, past and future.

Aspect, in contrast, is non-deictic in that it is related to the temporal shape of a situation. For Comrie (1976), aspect is concerned with the internal temporal constituency of events, states, or actions, their structure, and the relations between them within a situation. In a more comprehensive account of the term, Leech, Cruickshank, & Ivanič (2001) define aspect as "the way we view an action or state, in terms of the passing of time" (p. 54). Drawing on this account, aspect refers to the situation-internal time. Categorically speaking, aspect can be expressed morphosyntactically through verbal endings and periphrastic constructions and lexically by way of the inherent lexical semantics of verbs (Smith, 1991; Verkuyl, 1994).

Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik (1985) describe aspect as "a grammatical category, which reflects the way in which the verb action is regarded or experienced with respect to time" (p. 188). Accordingly, grammatical aspect refers to how an event is viewed with respect to time. For Comrie (1976), there are two categories of grammatical aspects, viz., perfective and imperfective. The former refers to events or actions that are viewed from outside as a completed whole with no reference to the internal structure. Imperfective aspect, in contrast, refers to an "internal temporal situation" with a specific time reference (Comrie 1976, pp. 18-25). Thus, the imperfective aspect presents an event from an internal view point (as ongoing or enduring) while the perfective one presents a completed event from an external perspective.

Unlike grammatical aspect, which is conveyed morphosyntactically, lexical aspect, refers to the inherent temporal (or aspectual) properties of verbs (Van Valin and LaPolla, 1997). That is, events or situations are classified according to their internal temporal features. Depending on their interaction with aspectual and temporal modifiers. Vendler (1957) classifies verbal predicates into four semantic categories: state, activity, accomplishment and achievement.

State verbs (e.g., know, love, taste, cost, etc.) express a state rather than an action; they do not have internal dynamism. Thus, they have no definite beginning or end. Activity verbs (e.g., walk, drive, jump, etc.), on the other hand, do not have an inherent endpoint. They involve an action that consists of successive phases over time and last for an interval of time. Though they encode actions that consist of successive phases, accomplishment verbs (such as write a letter, build a house and paint a picture) have an inherent endpoint and are gradual. Like accomplishments, achievement verbs (e.g., reach, realize, identify, win, recognize, etc.) have an endpoint but occur instantaneously. In addition to the Vendler-based classification of verb types, verbs can be classified semantically into three dimensions, namely, dynamicity, durativity and telicity (Comrie, 1976; Anderson, 1993; Smith, 1991).

Though they are independent categories, drawing a clear-cut distinction between tense and aspect has remained a controversial task over centuries. Moreover, it is rather puzzling to speak about tense without referring to aspect or contrariwise.

Tense and Aspect in English and Standard Arabic

English is an inflectional language. Thus, based on the two verbal inflections in the tense system of this variety '-s' and '-ed', grammarians such as Palmer (1974) and Christopherson & Sandved (1969), concur that English has two tenses, namely, present and past. They claim that 'will' and 'shall' do not belong to the tense system as they are rarely used to refer to 'pure future'. Comrie (1976) also asserts that tense locates a situation with reference to just present and past points in time.

Future in English is formed periphrastically. Therefore, future reference, which is conveyed by various verb forms, including modals, is not considered an absolute tense (Lock 1996; Blair 1984, among others). However, several other grammarians assert that the primary meaning of modals is to express future time reference and thus modal meanings are secondary (*Dürich, 2005;* Lock, 1996). For Downing & Locke (1992, p. 352), "tense primarily involves visualizing events as points in a sequence, preceding or following a central point which is usually the present moment." Therefore, the reference and event time points precede, follow, or coincide with the speaker's location. Based on the arguments of the proponents of the three-tense notion, the English tense system consists of present, past and future (*Dürich, 2005;* Downing & Locke, 1996; Leech, 1971; Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973). Leech (1971) and Quirk & Greenbaum (1973) illustrate that verb forms used to express future time in English can be sorted in terms of importance as follows: will/shall + infinitive, be going to + infinitive, present progressive, will/shall + progressive infinitive and simple present.

In addition to tense, Comrie (1976) argues that time is conveyed by means of aspect, which relates to time internal temporal constituency of a situation. Drawing on this notion, there are two aspects, that is, perfective and imperfective. The combination of tenses and aspects gives new verb forms to the same tenses. So, the combination of the present tense with imperfective by using the auxiliary 'be' and the suffix '-ing' gives rise to the present progressive while its combination with the perfective form by using the auxiliary 'has'/have' yields the present perfect. Combinations of the past tense with the imperfective by using the auxiliary verbs 'be' and the '-ing' suffix and the perfective by using the auxiliary verbs 'had' and the '-en' suffix yields past progressive and past perfect, respectively.

In Arabic, tense and aspect have been the subject of intensive research over the past decades. Generally speaking, Arabic has been categorized as an aspectual variety (Bishai, 1965; El-Hassan, 1987; Holes, 1995; Tritton, 1943; Salamah, 2019, among others). Mitchel & El Hassan (1994) clarify that the Arabic verb forms are not concerned with tense differences. Rather, they are primarily concerned with aspectual differences realized (perfective) or unrealized (imperfective). Some researchers (i.e., Haywood & Nhmad, 1962) argue that Semitic languages, including Arabic, are 'deficient' in regard to tense. Undoubtedly, this argument is mainly based on the lack of morphological expressions of tense.

Yet, some studies suggest that categorizing Arabic as an aspectual variety is unjustified since it does have tense (Fassi Fehri, 2000). The following examples show that Arabic morphological verb forms of the perfective, imperfective and future imperfective present deictic reference. A look at these examples shows some close resemblance between Arabic and English in this regard.

(1) fataħ-a l-walad-u l-baab-a
open-perf.3.sg.m. the-boy-nom the-door-acc
'The boy opened the door'

(2) yaftaħ-u l-walad-u l-baab-a
open-imperf.3.sg.m. the-boy-nom the-door-acc
'The boy opens/is opening the door'

(3) sawfa yaftaħ-u l-walad-u l-baab-a
will-open.3.sg.m. the-boy-nom the-door-acc
'The boy will open the door'

Comrie (1976) asserts "the difference between the Arabic perfective and imperfective cannot be purely one of aspect" (p. 78). Rather, he asserts that Arabic perfective is a case of tense/aspect opposition."

Arabic is a derivational variety. There are two verb forms in Standard Arabic (SA, hereafter), that is, 'almaḍˤi' (the perfective) and 'almuḍˤariʕ' (the imperfective). The imperfective form is both suffixal (number feature) and prefixal (person), whereas the perfective form is only suffixal and it mainly indicates the past tense (Benmamoun 2000, 9. 176). The verbal stem is based on the root, which consists of just three or more consonants. Verbal derivatives are structured according to a set of patterns. Thus, consonants rather than vowels convey the verb's meaning. However, classifying Arabic as derivational should not conceal that it has inflectional morphology that is expressed by means of affixes to indicate person, number, mood and gender. The following examples illustrate this.

(4)	Consonantal root	Perfective	Imperfective
	k-t-b 'write'	katab-a write-perf- 3.sg.m.	yaktub-u write-imperf-3.sg.m.
		'he wrote'	'he writes'
	d-r-s 'study'	daras-at study-perf-3.sg.f.	tadrus-u study-imperf-3.sg.f.
		'she studied'	'she studies'

In general, Arabic varieties distinguish between three types of sentences, namely, nominal, verbal and equational sentences (Btoosh, 2010). A sentence that begins with a noun is called a nominal sentence, as shown in (5).

(5)	?al bint-u	tamsaħ-u	l-bait-a
	the girl-nom.	mop-imperf.3.sg.f.	the house-acc.
	'The girl mops/is mopping the house.'		

A verbal sentence, in contrast, is the one that begins with a verb, as exemplified in (6).

(6)	tamsaħ-u	l-bint-u	l-bait-a
	mop-imperf.3.sg.f.	the girl-nom.	the house-acc.
	'The girl mops/is mopping the house.'		

A sentence that does not contain a verb is referred to as an equational sentence. In fact, the lack of the copula verb 'yakuun' (be) in equational sentences is attributed to a general language specific parameter that disfavors the phonological manifestation of the verb 'yakuun' (be) in the present tense.

(7)	?al bint-u	ʤamiilat-un
	the girl-nom	beautiful-nom.
	'The girl is beautiful.'	

Based on the examples, Arabic equational sentences have neither lexical verbs nor copulas. Yet, this generalization is valid only when it comes to the present tense. The following examples show that the copular verb does surface in the past and future.

(8)	kaan-at	l-bint-u	ʤamiilat-an
	was-3.f.	the girl-nom	beautiful-acc.
	'The girl was beautiful.'		

(9)	sawfa/sa- takuun-u	l-bint-u	ʤamiilat-an
	will-be.3.sg.f.	the girl-nom	beautiful-acc.
	'The girl will be beautiful.'		

Jordanian Arabic

Jordanian Arabic (JA, henceforth), the native tongue of the subjects of this study, is the medium of daily conversations, home communication and informal settings in Jordan. Historically speaking, JA belongs to the

Levantine Arabic family of dialects spoken in what was known historically as 'Greater Syria'. Irrespective of the differences among them, Arabic colloquial dialects, including JA, are to a large extent mutually understandable (Al-Shawashreh, 2016). However, JA, like other colloquial Arabic varieties, differs from SA in numerous features.

Unlike SA, JA lacks overt structural case marking on all lexical DPs. However, this variety shows a case distinction with pronouns. In terms of word order, JA is basically an SVO variety though it allows for other patterns (VSO, SOV, OVS, and OSV) under certain conditions and "with distinct syntactic and interpretive properties of each" (Jarrah, 2017, p. 6). Verbal predicates in this variety exhibit a full agreement (in terms of gender, number and person) with the topic and pronominal subjects in SVO word order pattern. However, "in VSO sentences, verbs either show full or partial agreement with lexical subject DPs whether definite or indefinite, and they can also show default agreement only with indefinite subjects "(Al-Aqarbeh, 2011). The following examples illustrate this.

(10)

SA			JA		
ʔakal-a	l-ʔawlaːd-u	t-tuffaːħat-a	ʔakal-u	l-wlaad	t-tuffaːħah
ate-perf.3.sg.m.	the boys-nom	the apple-acc.	ate- perf.3.pl.m.	the boys	the apple.
'The boys ate the apple.'			'The boys ate the apple.'		
ʔal-ʔawlaːd-u	ʔakal-u	t-tuffaːħat-a	l-wlaːd	ʔakal-u	t-tuffaːħah
the boys.nom.	ate- perf.3.pl.m.	the apple-acc.	the boys.nom.	ate-perf.3.pl.m.	the apple
'The boys ate the apple.'			The boys ate the apple.'		

The verb in JA, as shown above, displays full agreement with the subject (in terms of number, gender and person) in both word order patterns (SVO and VSO). However, the verb in SA fails to achieve full agreement in VSO word order. As far as the features under investigation in this study are concerned, it is unlikely that any of the learners' errors can be attributed to the peculiarities of JA. Instead, all instances of L1 influence or transfer cited here are attributable to the proto-Arabic irrespective of the vernacular in question.

Previous Research on Learners' Interlanguage

A person's ability to use language, think and conceptualize develops at the same time (Kreidler, 2002). For native speakers, language knowledge is, to a large extent, unconscious and implicit. However, for L2 learners language knowledge is highly conscious, and, thus, it is affected by several other factors, including the existence of previous knowledge. Research on SLA over the past three decades includes several hypotheses that seek to account for the L2 acquisition of tense-aspect morphology, including the Aspect Hypothesis (Andersen & Shirai, 1994, 1996), Default Past Tense Hypothesis (Salaberry, 1999, 2008) and Discourse Hypothesis (Bardovi-Harlig, 1994).

Aspect Hypothesis states that first- and second-language learners are initially influenced by the inherent semantic aspect of verbs and predicates in the acquisition of tense and aspect markers associated with or affixed to these verbs (Andersen & Shirai, 1994, p. 133). This hypothesis predicts an association of: (i) past marking with telic verbs; (ii) the perfective with the past (in languages that have a perfective/imperfective distinction); (iii) the progressive with dynamic verbs (and specifically activities); and (iv) no overextension of the progressive to stative verbs (Bardovi-Harlig, 2012, p. 484). According to the Default Past Tense Hypothesis, learners (during the very early stages of acquisition) are substantially affected by L1 transfer in the form of a generalized use of the perfective marker across lexical aspectual classes (Salaberry, 2008, p. 246). Discourse Hypothesis, on the other hand, asserts that "learners use emerging verbal morphology to distinguish foreground from background in narratives" (Bardovi-Harlig, 1994, p.43).

A close look at the literature shows that L1 transfer has remained a controversial source of errors, ranging from the perspective that it is the major barrier to L2 acquisition (Fries, 1945; Lado, 1957; Tarone, 1988), to being of limited, little or even no significance or impact (Selinker, 1972; Richards, 1974; Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982; Amenós-Pons, Ahern, & Guijarro-Fuentes, 2018; Pamittan, 2019). Irrespective of the pro and con arguments regarding L1 transfer, most studies clearly indicate that L1 impact remains persistent even at advanced levels of proficiency.

Research on the interlanguage grammar of Arab L2 learners of English has explicitly indicated that learners, regardless of their use of local varieties, generally experience difficulties related to misuse of verb tenses, tense marker deletion, and copula and auxiliary verbs deletion (Scott & Tucker, 1974; Mukattash, 1978; El-Badarin, 1982; Thompson-Panos & Thomas-*Ružić,* 1983; Btoosh, 2011, Alesawe; Klopfenstein, 2017; among others). Errors related to copula and auxiliary verbs deletion are primarily attributed to learners' L1 since all Arabic varieties have neither copula nor auxiliary verbs in the present tense. Ill-formed structures resulting from the misuse of verb tenses and tense marker deletion are generally attributed to several factors, including L1 influence, overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions, redundancy reduction and developmental stages of learning. Undoubtedly, such findings are consistent with the outcomes of several pioneering post-behaviorism studies conducted on learners of English from various language backgrounds (Corder, 1967; Norrish, 1983; Richards, 1974; Schachter, 1974; de Kleine & Lawton, 2018). Based on the findings of these studies, L1 constitutes neither the sole nor the primary source of learners' errors. Rather, it has been well-proven that intralingual errors - ill-formed structures resulting from incorrect generalizations, ignorance of rule restrictions, or incomplete application of rules - largely outweigh the interlingual errors.

Notwithstanding the divergent opinions expressed over L2 development and L2 competence, analyses of language samples produced by learners, regardless of their L1, have pointed to the existence of numerous features reflecting the structures of their L1 and rules of L2. For instance, the acquisition of the functional categories (of tense and aspect), which has been examined within the Universal Grammar and generative approach frameworks, shows that learners begin the L1 value parameters at early stages of acquisition (Brown, 2007, p. 291). However, the findings show that incomplete representations and fossilization prevent advanced L2 learners from achieving near native-like competence (Parodi, 2001; Sorace, 1993).

With the advent of machine-readable language corpora, new areas and fields of research, including the use of tense and aspect in representative naturally occurring data (rather than limited or hypothetical examples) have begun to receive greater attention and become top targets for extensive research worldwide. However, a close look at research devoted to investigating tense, aspect and verb form errors in the performance of Arab EFL learners within the corpus-based framework shows that this field has received little attention vis-à-vis the studies carried out via the traditional approaches. As far as the researcher can tell, no comprehensive study has been conducted on these forms within this framework, even though some preliminary attempts to tackle tense and aspect in learners' performance have been made (Hamada, 2008; Mammeri, 2015).

The present study, therefore, seeks to fill this gap by exploring the use of tense, aspect and verb forms in the academic writing of Arab L2 learners of English. In order to gain better insights on similarities and differences between learners and native speakers in terms of the used tenses and aspects, a frequency count of the number of occurrences of the target forms (in both corpora) has been conducted. Overall, this study is guided by the following research questions.

1. Do learner and reference corpora differ in terms of the frequency count and percentage of the six target verb tenses and aspects?
2. What are the most common tense, aspect and verb form errors characterizing learners' performance?
3. What are the major factors attributed to learners' errors?

Research Hypotheses

Based on the literature review, along with the findings of previous relevant empirical studies on tense and aspect, three hypotheses have been formulated.

1. There will be a sizable gap between the two corpora in terms of the frequency count and percentage of the absolute tenses, and imperfective and perfective aspects.
2. Learners' use of the perfective and imperfective aspects, auxiliary verbs and copula will be largely constrained by their L1 and the semantic interpretation of verbs.
3. Inconsistency inherent in L2 rules, L1 and overgeneralization will be the major contributing factors to learners' errors.

Materials and Methods

Background

In light of the objectives stated above, this study focuses on the use of simple present and simple past tenses, perfective and imperfective aspects, and verb-form errors arising from the deletion or addition of the third person singular -s besides the omission of copulas and auxiliary verbs. A deliberate attempt has been made throughout the paper to probe the reasons underlying the deviations in the learners' use of the target forms and features. To this end, special attention has been paid to:

- Delineate the use, overuse, underuse and misuse of tense and aspect forms in the performance of Arab L2 learners of English;
- Identify, label and categorize learners' tense, aspect and verb form errors;
- Provide plausible explanations for the sources and types of learners' errors.

Data Collection

The data for this study consists of two corpora, that is, the Interlanguage Corpus of Arab Students of English (ICASE,[1] hereafter) and the reference (native speaker) corpus extracted from the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS,[2] hereafter). Both corpora, as shown below, are similar in terms of the genre (argumentative, literary and expository essays), learners' age and level and data collection procedures (timed and untimed essays).

Learner Corpus

The ICASE, which was compiled by the researcher, consists of 100,229 tokens (words). This corpus is made up of 608 primarily argumentative timed and untimed essays written by second through fourth-year Arab university students of English at six public and private universities in Jordan. The untimed essays were written as homework assignments, while the timed ones were written under exam conditions where students had time constraints. Students who had lived in an English-speaking country prior to compiling this corpus were deliberately excluded from the study sample. Also, students who completed less than fifty credit hours were excluded from the study sample. It also is worth mentioning that almost all of the students who participated in this study started learning English at the age of 12 (fifth grade), with five classes weekly. This means that prior to their university or college education, students had studied English for at least eight years. Furthermore, English is one of the core courses throughout the school period, and it constitutes almost 30% of the total grade of the General Secondary Education Certificate (GSEC, hereafter). No student can be admitted to a university or community college unless s/he has passed the GSEC. This criterion ensures that mastering a considerable level of English is a prerequisite to university or even community college education. Students majoring in English language and literature at public and private universities are expected to complete approximately 90 credit hours in linguistics, translation, language skills and literature in addition to the university and college requirements, which are often taught in Arabic.

Reference Corpus

For comparison purposes, the target features have been compared to an isomorphic-sized corpus of native English essays. The reference or native corpus comes from LOCNESS, a corpus of argumentative essays written by American and British university students. To put it on equal footing with the learner corpus in terms of the number of tokens, only 100,229 tokens (words) have been extracted and used in this study.

Tools

For grammatical and statistical analyses, both corpora were annotated and processed with the aid of the following tools:

- Part-of-Speech Tagger: C7 Tagset (in CLAWS)

[1] ICASE: Interlanguage Corpus of Arab Students of English (a corpus compiled by the author).
[2] LOCNESS: Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays.

- Concordancer and Wordlist: WordSmith suite of Tools (version 7)
- Platform: Windows

The two corpora were tagged with C7 tagset of the CLAWS tagger (Garside & Smith, 1997). For better understanding of the part of speech tags used in the sections below, please see Appendix A, which lists the 137 tags that constitute this tagset.

Results and Discussion

In corpus linguistics, quantitative and qualitative analyses are used in combination (Leech, Hundt, Mair, & Smith, 2009). In line with this general trend and in conformity with the objectives of the current study, this section is divided into two sub-sections. The first section presents the quantitative findings while the second one reports on the qualitative analyses.

Quantitative Analysis

In order to examine the variation between the learner and reference corpora in terms of the forms and features set for investigation as illustrated above, the annotated versions of the two corpora were processed through the WordSmith software program (version 7). The numbers in Table 1, which presents the overall frequencies of the target forms and features in the learner and native corpora, reveal a significant variation between the two corpora.

Table 1
Frequency Count and Percentage of Verb Tenses and Aspects in Learner and Reference Corpora

Tense/Aspect / Corpus	Simple present	Simple past	Present progressive	Past progressive	Present perfect	Past perfect	Total
Learner	4213 (69.20%)	1487 (24.43%)	124 (2.04 %)	88 (1.45%)	128 (2.10%)	48 (0.79%)	6088 (100%)
Reference	2887 (63.35%)	737 (16.17%)	139 (3.05%)	58 (1.27%)	654 (14.35%)	82 (1.80%)	4557 (100%)

A simple comparison between the numbers above reveals significant insights into the discrepancy between the two corpora with regard to the use of the target forms (of tense and aspect). In addition to the variations in terms of the overuse and underuse of the individual tense and aspect forms, Table 1 reveals that the learner corpus outpaces its reference counterpart in the total number of verbs (6088 vs. 4557), a finding that has been established in previous literature (Btoosh, 2004; Guo, 2006, among others). Therefore, the higher use of verbs in the learner corpus is not unexpected. In a more recent study, based on a comparison between the Brown Corpus (the Brown University Standard Corpus of Present-Day American English) and the Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners (WECCL), Yuanyuan (2017) points out that native speakers use more nouns and adjectives while Chinese EFL learners use more verbs.

Drawing on the numbers presented in Table 1, Arab EFL learners overuse simple present, simple past and past progressive and underuse present progressive, present perfect and past perfect. Using a two-sided Z-test of proportions, and based on the p-value, the statistical data indicates (as shown in Appendix B) that, except for the past progressive, the differences between the learner and reference corpora are all significant (at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$).

The overuse of the simple present tense in the learner corpus is not surprising for three reasons. First, the native language of learners does not structurally distinguish between simple present and present progressive. As such, it is not uncommon for learners to use simple present where present progressive is expected. Second, it is a general tendency of learners to overuse of the simple present tense (Lauttamus, Nerbonne, & Wiersma, 2007; Rogatcheva, 2014, among others). Moreover, it is a common practice of Arab EFL learners to start a discourse with an opening perfective narrative verb while (all) the subsequent verbs in the discourse are used in the simple present form, as shown in (11).

(11) Last year, I wanted to meet somebody, but I *do not (did not) know how to meet him. My friend *encourage (encouraged) me to go and meet him in the park. It *is (was) a great idea.

A similar finding to the one presented in (11) has been reported by O'Brein (2003). Though the overuse of the simple past tense is a general tendency of learners (Wible & Huang, 2003), it still sounds plausible, based on the learners' interlanguage, to attribute such variation to the learners' association of the telic predicates (achievement and accomplishment) with the simple past. This, of course, lends support to both the Aspect Hypothesis (Andersen & Shirai, 1994, 1996) and Discourse Hypothesis (Bardovi-Harlig, 1994), since telic predicates show a tendency to occur in the foreground (material which provides the main points of the discourse), where the past form occurs recurrently. However, the underuse of the present perfect and past perfect forms in the learner corpus is chiefly attributed to the learners' failure to grasp the meanings and uses of these tenses.

Semantically speaking, the meanings of simple past and present perfect are distinctly realized by two forms in English while there is only one form underlying the two (meanings) in Arabic (Comrie 1976; Fassi-Fehri 2004; Bahloul 2008). Also, the perfect aspect in Arabic substantially corresponds to the simple past and past perfect tenses in English (Al Huneety, 2015, p. 125). Therefore, learners' use and nonuse of the perfective and imperfective aspects are constrained by their L1 grammar. Moreover, it is possible to attribute such variation to the avoidance strategy, whereby learners deliberately avoid using certain complicated forms (Schakhter, 1974; Btoosh, 2004). As a result, learners resort to various repairing strategies to compensate for their knowledge deficit, including the use of simple past as a substitute for the present or past perfect. Similar findings regarding learners' underuse of the perfect aspect are reported in Rogatcheva (2014).

Common Tense and Aspectual Problems

This section expounds on the major problems and deviations in the learners' use of tense, aspect and verb forms. By so doing, five sub-sections representing the most problematic areas for learners have been set for analysis. These sections detail errors resulting from the use and non-use of the punctive and durative verbs in the imperfective aspect, failure to distinguish between stative and dynamic verbs, improper use of the perfective aspect, omission or addition of the 3rd person singular -s inflection, and omission of copula and auxiliary 'be' forms in compound constructions.

Erroneous Non-use of the Progressive Form

The disparity between the two corpora in terms of the number of the used simple present verbs is a bit suggestive, as mentioned above. From the examples provided in Figure 1 below, it seems clear that learners' substitution of the simple present for the present progressive is a feasible factor in accounting for such disparity.

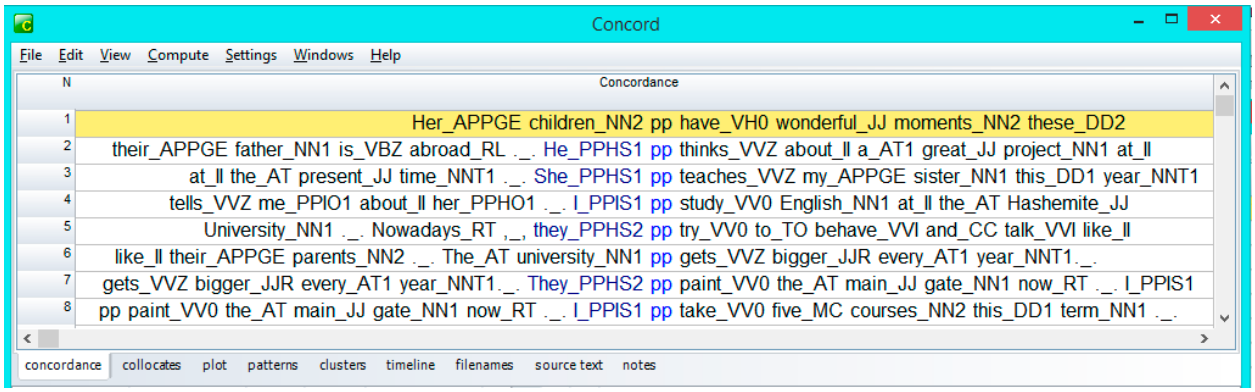

Figure 1. Substitution of simple present for present progressive.

The first two sentences shown in the concordance lines above present typical examples of the anomalous use of the simple present in environments where the present progressive would be used.

(12) Her children *have/are having wonderful moments.
(13) He *thinks/is thinking about a great project at the present time.

The erroneous non-use of the progressive aspect presented here stems from the learners' inability to distinguish between 'stative' and 'activity' meanings of certain verbs normally categorized as non-action verbs. For instance, neither *have* nor *think* in the examples above is used as a stative verb. Rather, they express actions as they mean

'experiencing' and 'considering', respectively. While most of the time 'have' expresses possession, sometimes it is used to express an activity. This distinction is made explicitly clear in the following two examples: a person can possess a car (14) but cannot possess wonderful times (15).

(14) Tom has a spacious car.
(15) Her children are having wonderful moments.

Another common error in learners' performance involves using the simple present tense instead of the present progressive or durative aspect when referring to an activity taking place (around) now or temporarily, as shown in the lines below.

(16) I *study/am studying English (language) at the Hashemite University.
(17) She *teaches/is teaching my sister this year.
(18) Nowadays, they *try/ are trying to behave and talk like their parents.

The errors exemplified in (16), (17) and (18) above are basically attributed to L1 influence, where the present progressive tense is not expressed structurally. In learners' L1, the present simple form is also used to express the idea of a continuous action occurring in the present. Accordingly, unless an adverbial marker is added, the following two English sentences have the same meaning and translation in learners' L1:

(19)	The student is living in London.	i ṭ̪alib	yaskun	fi	London
(20)	The student lives in London.	the student	live-imperf.3.sg.m.	in	London

'The student lives/is living in London.'

It still remains reasonable to attribute the ill-formed structures presented in the concordance lines in Figure 1 to 'redundancy reduction'. Accordingly, learners seem to undervalue and thus eliminate the present progressive markers ('be' + V-ing) as the sentence meaning is preserved by means of the adverbial markers or signal words such as *now, nowadays, listen, look,* and *at the moment of speaking*. Therefore, the signal words are, according to learners, sufficient to express the intended time reference. In addition to learners' L1 influence and redundancy reduction, the errors presented in Figure 1 might reflect a gap in the learners' competence that is mainly attributed to inconsistency inherent in L2 rules, as shown in (12) and (13) above. Nevertheless, based on the responses of the instructors surveyed for this study, learners' limited exposure to L2 and instructors' high tolerance of learners' errors are directly responsible for learners' errors and their weaknesses in L2 skills, in general. According to these instructors, who were subjectively surveyed during the corpus compilation process, students do not get sufficient exposure to L2. They merely ascribe this to in-class code-switching (non-use of the target language) and instructors' simplification of L2 input (by relying on short summaries or non-authentic textbooks). Besides, some surveyed instructors voiced their concerns regarding some professors' high tolerance of learners' errors. Previous research on learners' interlanguage provides evidence supporting these interpretations (Mohideen, 1996; Basiron, 2012; Köylü, 2018, among others).

Erroneous Use of Progressive with Punctive and Stative Verbs

Although less frequent compared to the progressive verbs mistakenly used in the simple present tense, learners sometimes use the past progressive in contexts where the simple past would normally be used. Figure 2 sheds some light on learners' erroneous use of punctual verbs in the imperfective aspect.

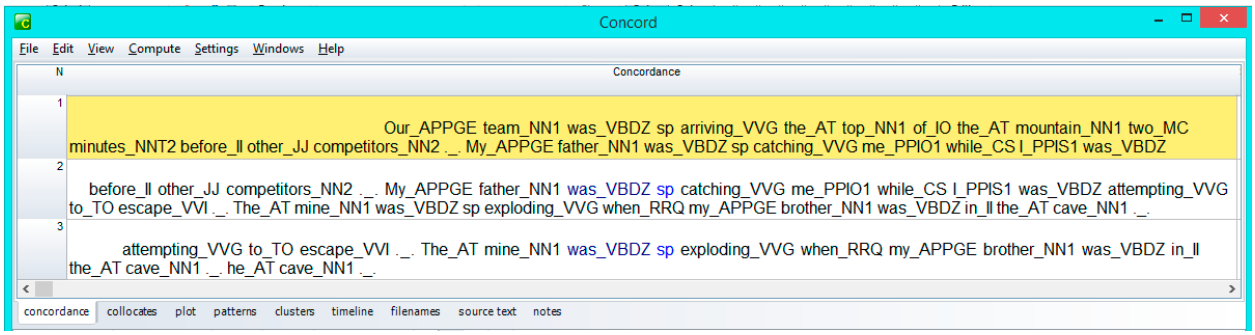

Figure 2. Using punctive verbs with progressive form.

The instances above demonstrate learners' erroneous use of the past progressive with verbs denoting instantaneous (punctive) events. Punctive verbs, as illustrated below, are not conceived of as lasting in time and, thus, they cannot be used in the present or past progressive forms. The non-use of the progressive form with punctual verbs is attributed to "the difficulty of including the reference time within a temporal trace barely bigger than an instant" (Dini and Bertinetto, 2000, p. 27).

(21) Our team *was arriving/ arrived the top of the mountain two minutes before other competitors.
(22) My father *was catching/caught me while I was attempting to escape.
(23) The mine *was exploding/exploded when my brother was in the cave.

Aspectually speaking, punctive verbs (e.g. *arrive, hit, win*, etc.) describe instantaneous events (that denote a single or momentary action) while durative verbs (e.g. *climb, wait, learn* and *study*) denote a situation that takes place over a period of time. It seems obvious that the actions conveyed by the verbs in (21), (22) and (23) do not denote duration of time (as they are instantaneous events). This is the reason why the use of these verbs in the progressive form has rendered them ungrammatical.

Yet, it should be highlighted that punctual verbs that presuppose a preceding event are used in the progressive form, as shown in (24).

(24) Rebecca was winning/won the race.

The use of the punctual verb with progressive in (24) presupposes that Rebecca participated in the race or was nearing the completion of the race (Engelberg, 1999:29-30). However, the frequency of using punctive verbs in the progressive form, irrespective of the interpretative logic, is relatively very low.

Figure 3 presents some more common types of intralingual errors, deviant forms resulting from the misuse of the target language rules.

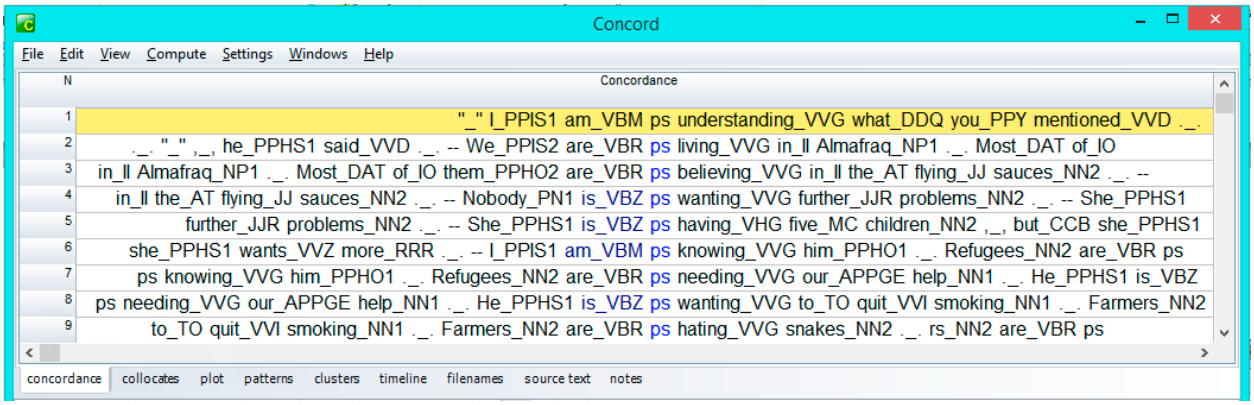

Figure 3. Substitution of present progressive for simple present.

All the erroneous forms shown in the concordance lines in Figure 3 are ascribed to learners' ignorance of L2 rule restrictions.

(25) I *am understanding/understand what you are saying.
(26) Most of them *are believing/ believe in the flying *sauces/saucers.

Both 'understand' and 'believe' are intellectual stative verbs and denote mental states. Therefore, the use of present progressive with theses verbs, as shown in (25 and 26), has rendered them ungrammatical since simple present rather than present progressive is normally used with non-action verbs. Accordingly, the learners' erroneous use of these verbs does not reflect their ignorance of the target language (present progressive) rules. Rather, it reflects their ignorance of the rule restrictions. Although the following sentence appears correct at first glance, it is contextually incorrect since the learner erroneously uses the present progressive to express a permanent action or an action that continues indefinitely.

(27) We *are living/live in Almafraq.

The seventh concordance line in Figure 3 presents another common error attributed to the effect of L2 rules on each other.

(28) Refugees *are needing/need help.

Though the contextual meaning of this sentence denotes a temporary sense (now), the verb 'need' expresses a mental state, and thus it cannot be used in the progressive form.

Erroneous Use and Non-use of the Perfective Aspect

Learners' use of the simple past in contexts where the past perfect would be normally used does not usually pose a serious communicative problem since the time relation between the two activities remains quite obvious through the time words 'before' and 'after'. Nevertheless, what really matters here is the use of the past perfect in situations where the simple past would normally be used.

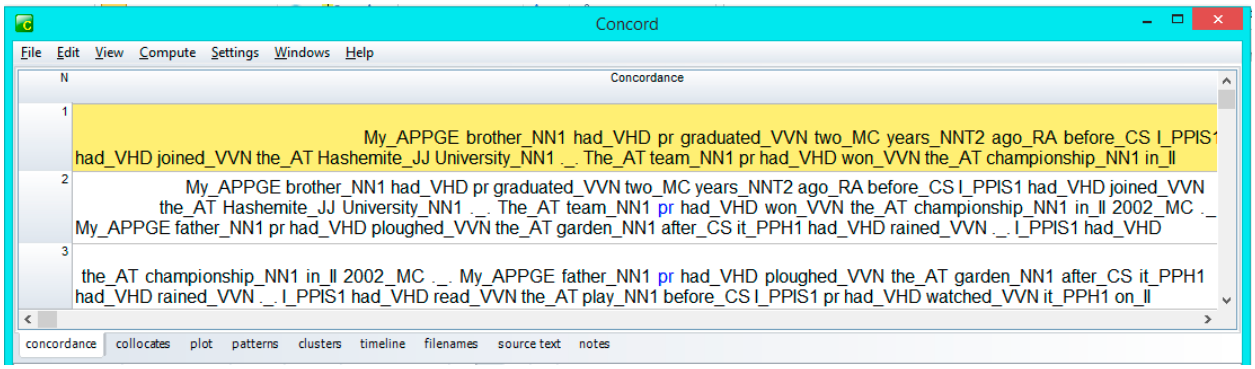

Figure 4. Erroneous use of the perfective aspect.

The use of the past perfect to express the 'earlier' and 'latter' actions, as shown in the concordance lines above, reflects a gap in learners' competence concerning the uses of the simple past and past perfect. In general, attributing learners' erroneous use or non-use of the past perfect to their L1 is reasonably justifiable as the Arabic perfect aspect largely corresponds to the simple past and past perfect tenses in English (Al Huneety, 2015, P. 125). Yet, hypercorrection remains feasible as some learners try to use more sophisticated structures just to sound more educated or native-like. Semantically speaking, the inappropriate use of the past perfect in environments where the simple past would normally be used sometimes leads to miscommunication as it makes the time order of events difficult to grasp, as shown in (29).

(29) She had left when her boss had arrived.

The meaning here is rather obscure as the receiver cannot infer which action took place first in the past. However, the following erroneous examples illustrate that time order remains constant when time words 'before' and 'after' are used.

(30) My brother had graduated two years before I *had joined/joined the Hashemite University.
(31) My father *had ploughed/ ploughed the garden after it had rained.

Learners' use of the past perfect with the 'latter' activity, as shown in (30), does not lead to a global error or misunderstanding since the time relation between the two activities is preserved by means of the time word 'before'. By the same token, inferring the intended meaning of sentence (31) does not present any difficulty for receivers since the time order is conveyed by 'after'.

Learners' choices of verb forms, as shown in the preceding sections, are negatively affected by the overlapping meanings of tenses and aspects. However, the concordance lines in Figure 5, show that learners' choices of the tense/aspect forms are also sometimes negatively affected by their L1 grammar.

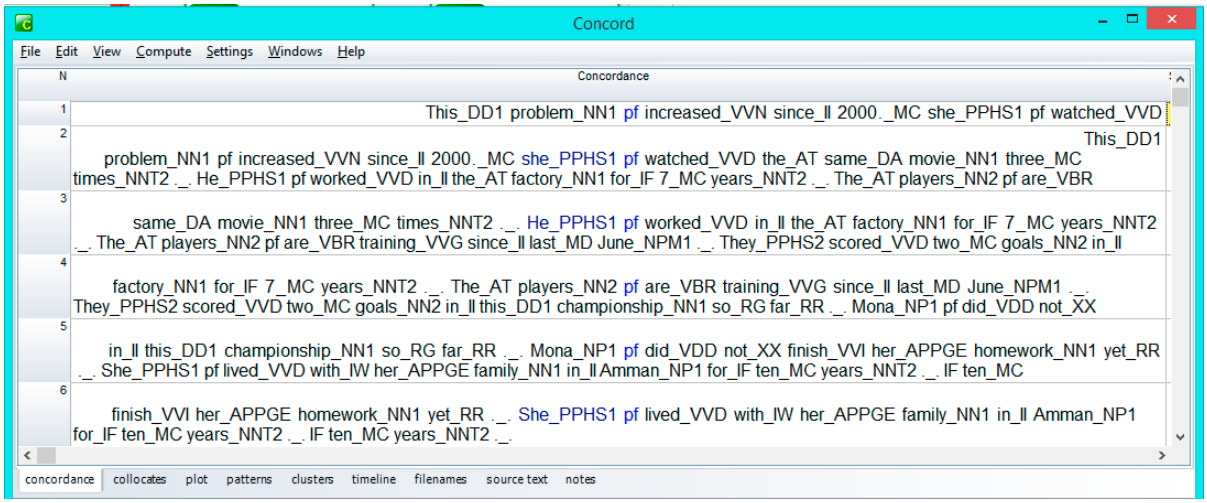

Figure 5. Erroneous non-use of the perfective aspect.

Using the simple past in environments where the present perfect is typically used, as shown in the concordance lines above, can be merely attributed to learners' L1 since the simple past and present perfect meanings are distinctly realized by two forms in English while there is only one form underlying the two (meanings) in Arabic (Comrie 1976; Fassi-Fehri 2004; Bahloul 2008). Therefore, replacing the present perfect verbs in all the following English sentences (32-35) by their corresponding simple past forms will not affect the meanings of the Arabic equivalent sentences as both tenses (present perfect and past perfect) are underlyingly identical in learners' L1.

(32) The problem *increased/has increased since 2000.
(33) She *watched/has watched the same movie three times.
(34) He *worked/has worked/ has been working at the factory for 7 years.
(35) The players *are training/have trained/have been training since last June.

However, due to the very nature and varied functions of the present perfect in English, the problematic construction of these sentences can also be accounted for independent of L1 transfer. Example (32), for instance, shows that the learner uses the simple past instead of the present perfect based on the past-time reference (2000), the date marking the beginning of the action. So, it seems rather obvious here that the learner mistakenly associates the past-time reference (2000) with the simple past tense. Example (33) also indicates that the learner erroneously uses the simple past to express a repeated action at an unspecified time (of completion) between the past and now (as the 'watching process' itself implicitly has taken place several times in the past). Sentence (35), on the other hand, presents another widespread error where learners use the present progressive instead of the present perfect based on the semantic interpretation of the verb since the denoted activity is still in progress (ongoing).

Omission and Addition of the 3rd Person Singular –s

Consistent with the findings of previous literature (Btoosh, 2011; Mukattash, 1978), the learner corpus contains plenty of instances where learners erroneously omit or add the third person singular inflection -s.

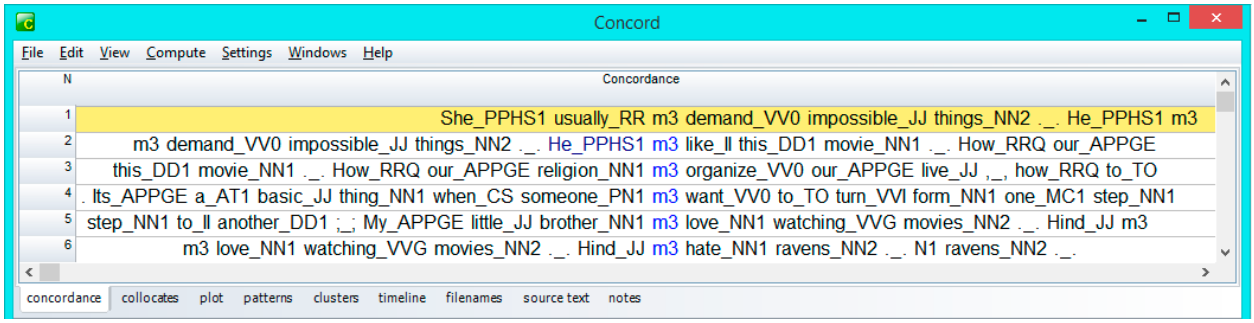

Figure 6. Omission of the 3rd person singular -s.

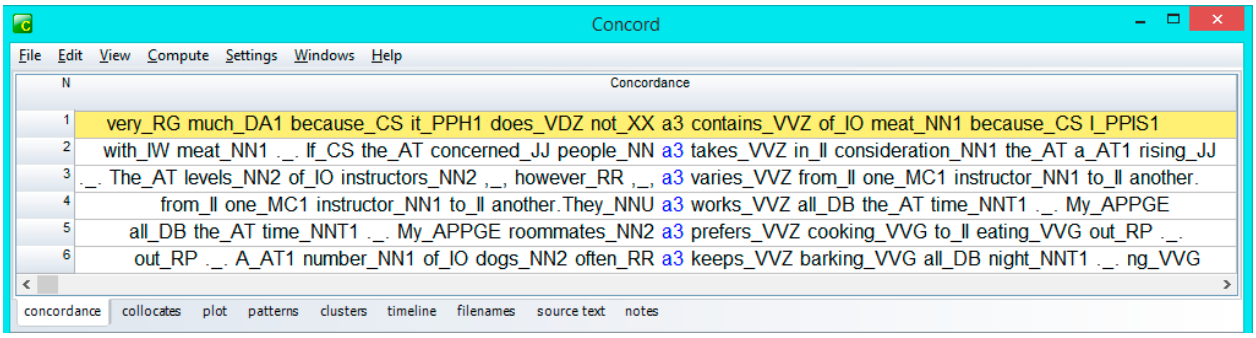

Figure 7. Addition of the 3rd person singular -s.

As can be readily observed from the concordance lines in Figures 6 and 7, learners omit or add the 3rd person singular -s in situations where it would, or would not normally, be used in L2, as illustrated in the following examples.

(36) She usually *demand/demands impossible things.
(37) He *like/likes this movie.
(38) How our religion *organize/organizes our lives…
(39) I like it very much because it *don't contains/doesn't contain meat…
(40) If the concerned people *takes/take into consideration the…

Due to the little semantic impact that the 3rd person singular inflection (-s) has or possesses (as its presence or absence doesn't lead to a global error or misunderstanding), learners are likely to underestimate or undervalue its importance, which helps to explain this prevalent error in learners' performance vis-à-vis other deviant forms.

Omission of Copula and Auxiliary *Be*

Copula (be) deletion refers to the absence of the verb 'be' that joins the subject of the verb with the complement. The deletion of the copula in the performance of Arab L2 learners of English comes as no surprise since copula is not present in learners' L1 present tense verbless or equational sentences.

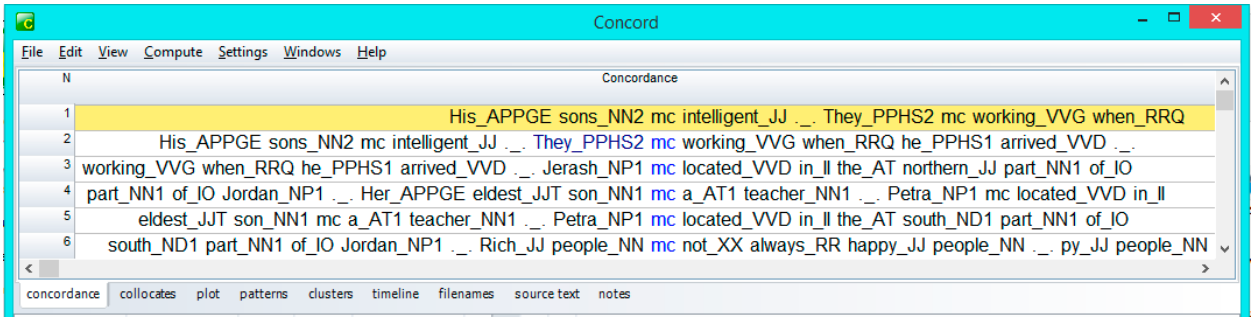

Figure 8. Omission of copula and auxiliary *Be*.

It should be made obvious that copula, which does not surface in the present tense in learners' L1, does surface in the past and future tenses, which helps explain the frequent omission of copula in learners' interlanguage in the present tense vis-à-vis its presence in the past and future tenses.

(41) His sons *intelligent/are intelligent.
(42) Her eldest son *a teacher/is a teacher.
(43) She *student/ is a student in the university.

Deletion of the auxiliary verb in composite verbs such as present and past progressive is another prevalent error in the learner corpus. The omission of the auxiliary verb occurs when a learner fails to remember the auxiliary or when s/he sacrifices the auxiliary at the altar of the main verb.

(44) They *working/were working when he arrived.
(45) Jerash *located/is located in the northern part of Jordan.

Learners often overlook or underestimate the presence of the *be* auxiliary when attempting to form the present or past progressive, a fact that results in incomplete verb phrases, as shown in (44) and (45) above.

Conclusion

This study has sought to identify and account for the common tense, aspect and verb form errors produced by Arab EFL learners over their mastery of L2. For comparison purposes, the target features in the learner corpus have been checked against a similar-sized native speaker corpus. Results present five major types of learners' errors resulting from the erroneous use of punctive and stative verbs in the progressive form, non-use of the progressive aspect with verbs denoting activities, erroneous use and non-use of the perfective aspect, omission and addition of the 3rd person singular -s, and omission of copula and auxiliary 'be' forms. Based on the findings of this study, learners' errors are ascribed to two major and broad sources, that is, L1 transfer (interlingual errors) and misuse of L2 rules (intralingual errors). Based on an analysis of the data collected, two main results emerge: first intralingual errors include all erroneous instances attributed to overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules, misanalysis and hypercorrection; second, errors attributed to the misuse of L2 rules are more numerically signfiant than those attributed to L1 influence. Such findings are empirically consistent with the outcomes of previous research into the performance of other, non-Arab L2 learners of English (Corder, 1967; Richards, 1974; Brown, 1980; George, 1972; Kaweera, 2013).

Two pedagogical implications for language instructors and curriculum and textbook developers can be drawn from these findings. The first implication addresses the need to maximize learners' exposure to authentic L2 input inside and outside the classroom. The second implication suggests curriculum and textbook developers design learner-centered curriculum and pedagogy that meet learners' needs and make a meaningful difference to learners' educational experiences. This study leaves ample room for further exploration of numerous relevant themes, including the need to conduct longitudinal and contrastive studies to investigate the impact of computer-based learning, learner-centered curricula, and cooperative techniques of teaching, such as Student Teams-Achievement Division (STAD) and Team Game Tournament (TGT), on learners' L2 proficiency and writing skills.

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Appendix A

UCREL CLAWS7 Tagset (retrieved at http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/claws7tags.html)

APPGE	possessive pronoun, pre-nominal (e.g. my, your, our)
AT	article (e.g. the, no)
AT1	singular article (e.g. a, an, every)
BCL	before-clause marker (e.g. in order (that),in order (to))
CC	coordinating conjunction (e.g. and, or)
CCB	adversative coordinating conjunction (but)
CS	subordinating conjunction (e.g. if, because, unless, so, for)
CSA	as (as conjunction)
CSN	than (as conjunction)
CST	that (as conjunction)
CSW	whether (as conjunction)
DA	after-determiner or post-determiner capable of pronominal function (e.g. such, former, same)
DA1	singular after-determiner (e.g. little, much)
DA2	plural after-determiner (e.g. few, several, many)
DAR	comparative after-determiner (e.g. more, less, fewer)
DAT	superlative after-determiner (e.g. most, least, fewest)
DB	before determiner or pre-determiner capable of pronominal function (all, half)
DB2	plural before-determiner (both)
DD	determiner (capable of pronominal function) (e.g any, some)
DD1	singular determiner (e.g. this, that, another)
DD2	plural determiner (these, those)
DDQ	wh-determiner (which, what)
DDQGE	wh-determiner, genitive (whose)
DDQV	wh-ever determiner, (whichever, whatever)
EX	existential there
FO	Formula
FU	unclassified word
FW	foreign word
GE	germanic genitive marker - (‘ or’s)
IF	for (as preposition)
II	general preposition
IO	of (as preposition)
IW	with, without (as prepositions)
JJ	general adjective
JJR	general comparative adjective (e.g. older, better, stronger)
JJT	general superlative adjective (e.g. oldest, best, strongest)
JK	catenative adjective (able in be able to, willing in be willing to)
MC	cardinal number, neutral for number (two, three..)
MC1	singular cardinal number (one)
MC2	plural cardinal number (e.g. sixes, sevens)
MCGE	genitive cardinal number, neutral for number (two’s, 100’s)
MCMC	hyphenated number (40-50, 1770-1827)
MD	ordinal number (e.g. first, second, next, last)

MF	fraction, neutral for number (e.g. quarters, two-thirds)
ND1	singular noun of direction (e.g. north, southeast)
NN	common noun, neutral for number (e.g. sheep, cod, headquarters)
NN1	singular common noun (e.g. book, girl)
NN2	plural common noun (e.g. books, girls)
NNA	following noun of title (e.g. M.A.)
NNB	preceding noun of title (e.g. Mr., Prof.)
NNL1	singular locative noun (e.g. Island, Street)
NNL2	plural locative noun (e.g. Islands, Streets)
NNO	numeral noun, neutral for number (e.g. dozen, hundred)
NNO2	numeral noun, plural (e.g. hundreds, thousands)
NNT1	temporal noun, singular (e.g. day, week, year)
NNT2	temporal noun, plural (e.g. days, weeks, years)
NNU	unit of measurement, neutral for number (e.g. in, cc)
NNU1	singular unit of measurement (e.g. inch, centimetre)
NNU2	plural unit of measurement (e.g. ins., feet)
NP	proper noun, neutral for number (e.g. IBM, Andes)
NP1	singular proper noun (e.g. London, Jane, Frederick)
NP2	plural proper noun (e.g. Browns, Reagans, Koreas)
NPD1	singular weekday noun (e.g. Sunday)
NPD2	plural weekday noun (e.g. Sundays)
NPM1	singular month noun (e.g. October)
NPM2	plural month noun (e.g. Octobers)
PN	indefinite pronoun, neutral for number (none)
PN1	indefinite pronoun, singular (e.g. anyone, everything, nobody, one)
PNQO	objective wh-pronoun (whom)
PNQS	subjective wh-pronoun (who)
PNQV	wh-ever pronoun (whoever)
PNX1	reflexive indefinite pronoun (oneself)
PPGE	nominal possessive personal pronoun (e.g. mine, yours)
PPH1	3rd person sing. neuter personal pronoun (it)
PPHO1	3rd person sing. objective personal pronoun (him, her)
PPHO2	3rd person plural objective personal pronoun (them)
PPHS1	3rd person sing. subjective personal pronoun (he, she)
PPHS2	3rd person plural subjective personal pronoun (they)
PPIO1	1st person sing. objective personal pronoun (me)
PPIO2	1st person plural objective personal pronoun (us)
PPIS1	1st person sing. subjective personal pronoun (I)
PPIS2	1st person plural subjective personal pronoun (we)
PPX1	singular reflexive personal pronoun (e.g. yourself, itself)
PPX2	plural reflexive personal pronoun (e.g. yourselves, themselves)
PPY	2nd person personal pronoun (you)
RA	adverb, after nominal head (e.g. else, galore)
REX	adverb introducing appositional constructions (namely, e.g.)
RG	degree adverb (very, so, too)
RGQ	wh- degree adverb (how)
RGQV	wh-ever degree adverb (however)

RGR	comparative degree adverb (more, less)
RGT	superlative degree adverb (most, least)
RL	locative adverb (e.g. alongside, forward)
RP	prep. adverb, particle (e.g about, in)
RPK	prep. adv., catenative (about in be about to)
RR	general adverb
RRQ	wh- general adverb (where, when, why, how)
RRQV	wh-ever general adverb (wherever, whenever)
RRR	comparative general adverb (e.g. better, longer)
RRT	superlative general adverb (e.g. best, longest)
RT	quasi-nominal adverb of time (e.g. now, tomorrow)
TO	infinitive marker (to)
UH	interjection (e.g. oh, yes, um)
VB0	be, base form (finite i.e. imperative, subjunctive)
VBDR	Were
VBDZ	Was
VBG	Being
VBI	be, infinitive (To be or not… It will be ..)
VBM	Am
VBN	Been
VBR	Are
VBZ	Is
VD0	do, base form (finite)
VDD	Did
VDG	Doing
VDI	do, infinitive (I may do… To do…)
VDN	Done
VDZ	Does
VH0	have, base form (finite)
VHD	had (past tense)
VHG	Having
VHI	have, infinitive
VHN	had (past participle)
VHZ	Has
VM	modal auxiliary (can, will, would, etc.)
VMK	modal catenative (ought, used)
VV0	base form of lexical verb (e.g. give, work)
VVD	past tense of lexical verb (e.g. gave, worked)
VVG	-ing participle of lexical verb (e.g. giving, working)
VVGK	-ing participle catenative (going in be going to)
VVI	infinitive (e.g. to give… It will work…)
VVN	past participle of lexical verb (e.g. given, worked)
VVNK	past participle catenative (e.g. bound in be bound to)
VVZ	-s form of lexical verb (e.g. gives, works)
XX	not, n't
ZZ1	singular letter of the alphabet (e.g. A,b)
ZZ2	plural letter of the alphabet (e.g. A's, b's)

Appendix B

Frequency Count and Percentage of Verb Tenses and Aspects in Learner and Reference Corpora

Tense/Aspect / Corpus	(1)* Simple present	(2)* Simple past	(3) Present progressive	(4) Past progressive	(5) Present perfect	(6) Past erfect	Total
Learner	4213 (69.20%)	1487 (24.43%)	124 (2.04 %)	88 (1.45%)	128 (2.10%)	48 (0.79%)	6088 (100%)
Reference	2887 (63.35%)	737 (16.17%)	139 (3.05%)	58 (1.27%)	654 (14.35%)	82 (1.80%)	4557 (100%)

Using a two-sided z-test of proportions, and based on the p-value, that statistical data show that, except for the past progressive, the differences between the learner corpus and reference corpus are all significant (at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$).

(1)* $z = 6.342$, P-Value < 0.05

(2)* $z = 10.382$, P-Value < 0.05

(3)* $z = 3.323$, P-Value < 0.05

(4)* $z = 0.790$, P-Value < 0.429

(5)* $z = 23.980$, P-Value < 0.05

(6)* $z = 4.695$, P-Value < 0.05

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Internationalization and English as a Medium of Instruction in Mongolian Higher Education: A New Concept

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The impact of globalization leaves no choice to universities but to go toward internationalization in order to survive in the growing competition in higher education. Following the global trend of internationalization, Mongolian universities plan to increase courses and programs in English in order to improve their competitiveness and ultimately to become internationally visible, at least in Asia. Based on two types of data, documents and an online survey, this study discusses the current process of internationalization at Mongolian universities and explores how faculty members perceive the rationales of implementing English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI). The findings revealed that the Mongolian government is the key player in internationalization through policies, taking initiatives, and encouraging national universities. The faculty members of the two leading private universities in Mongolia perceived that the introduction of EMI at their universities intends to improve their graduates' English language skills to operate globally and as well as to promote their university's international profile.

Keywords: internationalization of higher education, English as a medium of instruction, faculty development, international collaboration, joint/dual degree programs

Introduction

Internationalization of higher education (IoHE) is not a homogenous concept as much as it is a global concept of interrelated dimensions (Hudzik, 2015). IoHE has many aspects, including organized cross-border mobility of students and faculty, foreign language learning, internationalization of curricula, cross-border institutional partnerships in joint research, joint degrees, and branch campuses. There is no agreed-upon definition for IoHE. Soderqvist (2002) provided an early definition of IoHE as "a change process from a national higher education institution to an international higher education institution leading to the inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects of its holistic management in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning and to achieve the desired competencies" (p.29). However, the most recognized definition is the one put forth by Knight (2003), "Internationalization is the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" (p. 2). According to Knight (2004), IoHE has two main spheres of action, "internationalization at home" and "internationalization abroad". 'Internationalization at home' applies strategies and approaches designed to utilize an international dimension into the home campus by including global and comparative perspectives in the curriculum or recruiting international students, scholars, and faculty and leveraging their presence on campus. 'Internationalization abroad' encourages an institution to send students to study abroad, set up a branch campus overseas, or engage in an inter-institutional partnership (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2009).

Rationales for Internationalization

Rationales for internationalization (Knight & de Wit, 1997; Knight, 2003, and de Wit, 2000) are categorized into four groups: academic, social/cultural, political, and economic. According to Knight & de Wit (1997), rationales

can be described as motivations for internationalization and different rationales imply different means and ends (de Wit, 2000). These rationales have become the most widely recognized set of motivations for the IoHE. In addition to the four categories, Knight (2004) added a new category, *branding* and developing an international reputation, particularly through rankings.

To clarify the categories of the five rationales, Knight (2004) divided them between the national and institutional levels. At the national level, rationales that drive internationalization in higher education include human resource development, strategic alliances, commercial trade, nation building, and social/structural development; while institutional-level rationales cover international profile and reputation, student and staff development, income generation, strategic alliances, and research and knowledge production (see Knight, 2004).

For this study, it is important to understand the rationales for internationalization, as one of the reasons and motivations includes the implementation of EMI. Thus, this study will examine the rationales for implementing EMI from the perspectives of staff and faculty members at private universities through an online survey to determine the rationales and policies for adoption of EMI at the institutional level in Mongolian higher education context.

English as a Medium of Instruction

IoHE has become a priority for education systems in many countries where English is not the national language. This is closely connected to the use of English (Yonezawa & Shimmi, 2015). One of the reasons for this is that as a lingua franca, the use of English represents how non-Anglophone countries try to enter the competitive arena of global higher education and the economic marketplace (Stigger, 2018, p.4). As Coleman (2006) claimed, the reasons for the HEIs to introduce programs and courses taught through EMI are split into seven categories: content and language integrated learning, internationalization, student exchanges, teaching and research materials, staff mobility, graduate employability, and the market in international students. In other words, foreign language learning in itself is not the reason why institutions adopt English medium teaching.

EMI is one trend in IoHE across many non-English speaking countries as countries shift their focus from teaching English to teaching academic subjects in English (Graddol, 1997; Dearden, 2015). EMI is defined as, "The use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English" (Dearden, 2015, p.2). EMI is a growing global phenomenon in all phases of education, and more and more universities are in a rush to offer both graduate and undergraduate programs through EMI (Macaro et al., 2018). By offering courses in English, an institution is able to attract international students and faculty members, and this brings opportunities for its own students and teachers to participate in international scientific research (Graddol, 1997).

Literature Review

The literature review explores the process of IoHE at both national and institutional levels and the concept of EMI in Mongolia. In order to view the process and concept, it is important to understand the higher education system of the country, in this case, Mongolia. This is followed by the background on national and institutional policies for internationalization and adoption of EMI.

Higher Education System in Mongolia

Mongolia is a landlocked country with 1.5 million square kilometers of land area, a total population of 3.1 million and a gross domestic product per capita of $7,800 as of 2016.[1] The total number of students in tertiary education amounted to 155,248 (58% female) as of 2017. In the same year, 95 HEIs including a high percentage of private institutions (78%), national (18%), and a small percentage of branch schools of foreign universities (4%) are operating in Mongolia.[2] The branch schools of foreign universities include three from the Russian Federation and one from Singapore.

[1] Mongolian Statistical Information Service. (2016). *Statistical Yearbook 2016*. Retrieved from http://www.en.nso.mn/index.php

[2] Ministry of Education, Culture, Sciences, and Sports. (2017a). *Higher Education Statistics 2016-2017*. Retrieved from http://www.mecss.gov.mn/data/1702/HSta1617st

The history of Mongolian higher education is rooted in the National University of Mongolia, which was established in 1942 with three faculties: medical, pedagogical, and veterinary (Gantsog & Altantsetseg, 2003). Since then, several faculties were developed: physics, mathematics, natural sciences, social sciences, economics, law, and languages and literature. After Mongolia transferred to a free market economy system from a command economy in the 1990s, the government ceased most of its funding for national universities, only covering utility costs. This resulted in the introduction of a student fee structure in 1993 (Gantsog & Altantsetseg, 2003). Moreover, the government of Mongolia made a policy of 'cost sharing' to shift a greater portion of the burden of payment to individuals and transferred public expenditure on education to student loans. The government also legalized the establishment of private universities and branch schools of foreign HEIs.

Internationalization of Higher Education

Despite a handful of studies that discussed the early internationalization initiatives in Mongolia, little is known of current strategies and activities towards internationalization at national and institutional levels. Previous studies focused on the impact of globalization on higher education (Gantsog & Altantsetseg, 2003; Sodnomtseren, 2006), educational expansion in higher education (Agvaantseren & Hoon, 2013), or a strategy for internationalization in one national institution (Jargalsaikhan, 2015).

At the national level, the *Mongolian Sustainable Development Vision—2030*, enacted by the Mongolian Parliament in 2016, set an ambitious goal to have at least four Mongolian national universities recognized internationally for research in STEM fields. It indicated,

> Build a science and technology cluster and park in accordance with priority development areas, and ensure that no less than four Mongolian universities are ranked among Asian top universities.[3]

There is no data for Mongolian HEIs in the popular ranking systems, such as Times Higher Education's World University Rankings, Academic Ranking of World Universities, and QS World University Rankings. However, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Science, and Sports is cooperating with the QS ranking system to rank Mongolian universities starting from 2020.[4]

In order to become internationally recognized through these rankings, Mongolian national universities will need to focus more on research and publication as it is one of the key indicators. The proportion of online scientific papers from Mongolia reached 315 in 2016 but dropped to 252 in 2017 (Hu, 2017). This shows that the number of papers produced per year remains low. To increase it, two measures are urgent. The government needs to increase the budget for research and development whereas national universities should offer more reward to prominent faculties and researchers.

Mongolian HEIs are also changing their fundamental missions, hoping to become international universities. According to Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley (2009), at the institutional level, a large number of universities around the world aim to produce 'global citizens' with 'global competencies' by adopting extended missions under internationalization. Mission statements of a number of Mongolian HEIs highlighted that they aim to become "global", i.e. an internationally recognized university. Table 1 compares excerpts of mission statements from several major national and private HEIs that aim to become research-oriented and leading institutions in Asia and the world.

Mission statements show that becoming recognized in the region, improving research, technology, and innovation, and integrating into international standards are the main goals set by these universities.

Within the initiatives and policies of IoHE, the government of Mongolia in cooperation with its national universities, aims to develop a comprehensive university campus outside the capital city, Ulaanbaatar.[5] The

[3] Partnership for Action on Green Economy. (2017). *Mongolia Sustainable Development Vision 2030*, 28. Retrieved from http://www.un-page.org/files/public/20160205_mongolia_sdv_2030.pdf

[4] Ministry of Education, Culture, Sciences, and Sports. (2019). *Minister of MECSS meets national universities' heads*. Retrieved from https://mecss.gov.mn/news/1344/

[5] Government of Mongolia. (2010a). *Resolution on Ratification of Developing Universities with Building Campuses*. Retrieved from http://www.mecss.gov.mn/director-content-312-317.mw

Table 1
Comparison of HEIs mission statements

	Type	Name	Excerpt from Mission Statements
1	National	National University of Mongolia	"…to become a national model research university which meets *world standards** and provides pillars for Mongolia's development."
2	National	National University of Medical Sciences	"…to become a national leading and *one of* the *top 100 medical universities** in the west coastal area of the Pacific Ocean."
3	National	National University of Life Sciences	"…to become a leading global university*…"
4	National	Mongolian University of Science and Technology	"…to become *one of Asia's top universities**."
5	National	National University of Education	"…to become a *competitive institution** among Asian universities of education."
6	Private	Ikh Zasag International University	"…be a modern *global university** of technology and innovation."
7	Private	University of the Humanities	"…to become a reputable and *leading university in Asia**… "
8	Private	University of Finance and Economics	"…to become a *leading research university** recognized in the region…"
9	Private	Otgontenger University	"…to become a research university that satisfies international standards…"
10	Private	Mongolia International University	"…to educate and develop leaders in Mongolia and *throughout Central Asia**…"
11	Private	Mongolian Royal Academy	"…to be a university that provides *world-class education**…"
12	Private	Mongolian National University	"…to become a university that leads in Mongolia, *Asia, and Europe through research and teaching**."

Note: Data are from websites of each institution (translated by the author)
* Italics are inserted by the author

goal of the policy is to integrate international dimensions into the national educational system and support the transformation of national and private universities to a campus model. The government of Mongolia believes that building up a comprehensive campus will lay a solid infrastructure for adapting the national universities' strategic development goals and improving teaching and research quality. The comprehensive campus development plan will also allow the integration of educational resources among the national universities. In addition, national universities will be able to share resources, develop interdisciplinary research, and pursue a coordinated external relations strategy.

With the goal to improve the quality of higher education through internationalization, the government merged national universities reducing the number from 42 to 16 in 2010.[6] The private HEIs also started to merge voluntarily following the government policy. The number of private institutions which amounted to 129 in 2004 reduced to 79 in 2014 and subsequently to 74 in 2017. In addition, external assessment and accreditation have become necessary to improve the quality and status of higher education in Mongolia. Currently, 74 universities qualified for national accreditation.[7] The accreditation of HEIs was on a voluntary basis until 2016 when the government made it mandatory for all types of HEIs to undergo accreditation.[8]

English as a Medium of Instruction in Mongolia

Based on the document analysis, this section outlines the background of English language education and then discusses the current situation of EMI in the country. The Mongolian education system policies aimed to teach only Russian as a foreign language when the country had close ties with the former Soviet Union. During the socialist period, it was mandatory for all students regardless of their fields to learn Russian for 3-4 years continuously and take a state examination in Russian. This was changed when the English language department opened at the National University of Mongolia in 1956. In the 1990s, when Mongolia expanded its

[6] Government of Mongolia. (2010b). *Resolution on Reforming of Some State Owned Higher Education. Institutions.* Retrieved from http://www.mecss.gov.mn/director-content-313-317.mw
[7] Mongolian National Council for Education Accreditation. (2017). *Accredited institutions*. Retrieved from http//accmon.mn/accredited-institutions-final/
[8] Legal Info System. (2017). Approval of Program. Retrieved from http://www.legalinfo.mn/law/details/4992?lawid=4992

foreign relations with other countries, it needed more professionals with English language abilities. Although more HEIs started to offer English courses, there were not enough English language teachers. In 1990-1995, with the support from United Nations Development Program and Overseas Development Administration-British Overseas Development Agency, a specialized English language institute was founded to retrain hundreds of Russian language teachers as English language teachers (Altan-Od & Khongorzul, 2012).

English is not the second official foreign language in Mongolia. However, the documents on the English language in the past two decades show that English is treated as the second main foreign language in Mongolia. In 1997, the Minister of Enlightenment passed an order to teach English as a foreign language from the academic year of 1997-1998 in all levels of educational institutions.[9] Later, the order by the Ministry of Education, Culture, and Sciences indicated that the main foreign language in bachelor's level programs would be English.[10]

The term, EMI, was first used officially in the Comprehensive National Development Strategy of Mongolia, which was based on the Millennium Development Goals.[11] The strategic objective 2 in Education Development Policy indicates the government will, "…provide financial support to high schools, vocational schools, and universities which use English as the medium of instruction" (World Bank, 2008, p.19). Moreover, this document addressed the importance of English, pointed out the goal of making the English language a major foreign language in Mongolia, and set a goal to prepare civil servants with English competencies by 2021. Prior to this official document, in its resolution on English language education, the government of Mongolia (2001) announced the need to teach EMI courses in fields such as international relations, economics, journalism, tourism, medicine, and technology. The National Program on English Education highlighted the importance of "creat[ing] a system/mechanism pushing the need and use of English as the main tool for education, for communication, information access, and business…[12]"

Currently, national and private universities in Mongolia offer, in total, around 385 EMI courses (see the document analysis section). However, despite a handful of private universities, opportunities to earn academic degrees in English are limited. Examples include the Mongolia International University that has been offering undergraduate degree programs entirely in English since its establishment in 2002. Another institution is the Royal International University, which opened its doors offering business degree programs entirely in English in 2010. At the graduate level, opportunities to gain degrees in English are available in joint and dual degree programs (mostly Master's degree) at major national and private universities.

This study explores the factors driving Mongolian higher education to pursue internationalization and EMI based on the literature review. The study attempts to answer the following two research questions:

1. What are the driving factors of Mongolian higher education to pursue internationalization and English Medium Instruction?
2. How do the faculty members understand these rationales?

Materials and Methods

The study consists of an analysis of two main sets of data: 1) documents and 2) an online survey. The following section explains the data collection and analysis. All data related to Mongolian higher education, reforms, internationalization policy, and English language policy went through a qualitative document analysis, "describing, classifying and connecting" (Coffey and Atkinson, 1996, p.8) to portray a comprehensive picture of the IoHE and the concept of EMI in Mongolia.

[9] Ministry of Enlightenment. (1997). *Resolution # 208 on Some Measures for Foreign Language Training*. Retrieved from http://www.mecss.gov.mn/

[10] Ministry of Education, Culture, and Sciences. (2006). *Resolution # 481 on making an amendment in the standard module.* Retrieved from http://www.mecss.gov.mn/

[11] World Bank. (2008). *The Millennium Development Goals-based Comprehensive National Development Strategy of Mongolia*. Retrieved from http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTMONGOLIA/Resources/NDS_DRAFT_ENG.pdf

[12] Government of Mongolia. (2008). *Resolution on Ratification of the National Program on English Language Education*, 5. Retrieved from http://www.mecss.gov.mn/director-content-331-317.mw

Document analysis

Following qualitative document analysis methods (Coffey and Atkinson, 1996), an array of documents was collected from general and academic sources. The collected documents included: policy documents related to Mongolian higher education since the 1990s, government orders, amendments, higher education legislation; websites of 10 national universities and 18 private institutions (as of 2017); official reports by the World Bank, Asian Development Bank (ADB), and Open Society Institute; selected online newspaper articles at three main newspapers (Daily News, Unuudur, and Zuunii Medee); and previously published articles written in both Mongolian and English. Most documents were available in Mongolian; thus, the researcher, as a native Mongolian speaker, had the advantage to analyze the documents in their original language. In addition, the researcher used his insider perspectives working in the higher education sector in Mongolia in the last 14 years. However, it should be noted that the collected documents lacked recent empirical studies and articles related to the topic in this study.

First, the collected documents were read closely to find topic codes which described the main segments of the documents. During the qualitative document analysis, the emphasis was given to official evidence relating to the strategies and approaches for internationalization and EMI policy at the national level. After completing the initial coding process, the coded data were reviewed again and coded segments that reflected similar concepts were grouped into larger categories. After all coded data had been categorized, the categories were reexamined to identify major themes in a relationship with the IoHE in the Mongolian context and the questions of the study. As a result, six dimensions were identified, four of which are presented in this report due to their larger scale.

In addition, documents from 28 national and private universities were collected to understand their EMI policies and the implication of EMI in their strategic plans, mission statements, and public identity. It should be noted that there is no available data on EMI in Mongolia. The number of courses (385) in English was discovered by the author through his private contacts with the 28 universities' academic affairs offices. However, it was not possible to identify the exact number of degree programs and courses in English in the Mongolian HEIs. The reasons include unresponsiveness when reaching out to the universities' academic affairs offices and inaccessibility of information from the university websites.

Online survey

Based on documentary evidence, an online survey was conducted with faculty members who teach EMI courses at two leading private universities in Mongolia. The survey was developed based on the objectives and the related literature. To ensure that the questionnaire was free from error, its content was subjected to pretesting in two ways. First, I asked experts in research in higher education to comment on the questionnaire focusing on clarity, question-wording, validity and order of the questions. Second, I piloted the questionnaire with ten faculty members at the National University of Mongolia. Feedback from education experts and the pilot study was used to make corrections on the questionnaire.

The survey was conducted at the two universities in Ulaanbaatar, the capital of Mongolia. Purposive sampling (Patton, 2002) was used to select these universities. As Patton (1990) emphasized, purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for in depth study. From the information-rich cases, one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research. From the 17 strategies for purposefully selecting information-rich cases by Patton (1990), the third strategy, Maximum Variation sampling, was used to select the two universities for the survey. This strategy aims at capturing and describing the central theme or principal outcomes that cut across a great deal of participants or program variation. In addition, document analysis revealed that these two universities have more EMI degree programs than other private universities. National universities were excluded due to a limited number of programs taught in English despite their joint and dual degree programs. At the time of the survey, National University of Mongolia had only one joint business degree program in English while Mongolian National University of Medical Sciences, Mongolian University of Life Sciences, and Mongolian National University of Education had no active degree programs in English (personal communications).

The survey explored faculty members' understandings of the rationales for EMI and examined its implementation

in two private universities. To provide rich data about the implementation of EMI, the survey targeted two private universities that have adopted an EMI earlier and have implemented it most aggressively among Mongolian HEIs. The survey was originally distributed to 25 faculty members in University A and 30 faculty members in University B. Twenty faculty members from each university who are teaching EMI courses participated in the survey (see Table 2). Most of the faculty members were identified through the email contact with the program deans and some were recruited via direct private email. To ensure that respondents in the survey provided sincere answers, the survey was conducted anonymously and it did not request names and other private information that may reveal their identities.

Table 2
Demographic characteristics of the respondents (n= 40)

Characteristics	Number
Male	25
Female	15
Degree	
• Doctoral degree	8
• Doctoral candidates	11
• Master's Degree	21
Teaching experiences by year	
• 3 or less	12
• 4 or more	6
• 5 or more	6
• 10 or more	16

The survey had 18 questions: five questions on respondents' personal information such as history/experience of teaching courses in English, the experience of teaching overseas, seven yes-no and multiple-choice questions, four five-level Likert-scale and two open-ended questions (see Attachment A). The online questionnaires that were designed in English in the Google forms sent to the faculty members in January 2018. The questionnaire was closed in February 2018. The majority of the respondents' nationality was Mongolian (24 faculty members) while the rest were American (5), Bangladeshi (2), Korean (7), and Chinese (2).

Results

Document analysis: Main dimensions of internationalization

The document analysis identified six main dimensions of the internationalization process in Mongolian higher education: (1) Administrative leadership and structure; (2) Faculty development; (3) Internationalized curriculum development; (4) Student mobility; (5) Distance Education' and (6) International partnership and collaboration. This section explores the four dimensions (2, 3, 4, and 6) in the internationalization processes of Mongolian HEIs in global and local contexts, their actions and strategies, and underlying motivations.

Faculty development

The role of faculty members is vital in the institutional internationalization process. Hiring new faculty members or developing existing faculty members is central to the success of approaches to internationalization and maintenance of quality standards. The Mongolian government action plan of 2008-2012 indicated in the section under education, "…faculty development program will be implemented in HEIs", and "…Young researchers and scholars will be supported" in order to improve higher education quality and standards."[13] In addition, the Roadmap for Higher Education Reform sets goals for faculty development for 2010-2021 to increase the number of higher education faculty members with a PhD by at least 50 per cent.[14] Currently, 2034 of 6917 (29%) full-time

[13] Legal Info System. (2018). *Mongolian Government Action Plan 2008-2012*. Retrieved from http://www.legalinfo.mn/annex/details/3295?lawid=6187
[14] Ministry of Education, Culture, Sciences, and Sports. (2017b). *Roadmap for Higher Education Reform 2010-2021*. Retrieved from http://www.mecss.gov.mn/roadmap201021

faculty members have a PhD.[15]

Since the 1990s, faculties in HEIs have had scarce opportunities and resources to develop their skills and knowledge. Although international philanthropic organizations such as the Open Society Institute offered short-term exchange programs for faculties across all HEIs, faculties still lacked language skills to benefit from international training. However, this is changing and national universities are now focusing more on faculty development in order to increase their quality and visibility.

According to the categories of faculty development developed by Fink (2013), Mongolia belongs to the first level of faculty development, "little or no faculty development activity". Main national universities are striving to offer more faculty development opportunities, thus, aiming for the second level, "a substantial minority of institutions offering faculty development activity where participation is voluntary".

Despite these initiatives, the majority of HEIs still do not have a comprehensive plan for faculty development and faculty members spend little time for self-development due to a heavy workload (Narankhuu & Batkhishig, 2015). Most of the faculty members (67%) at national universities viewed developing academic research and foreign language skills as the top priority in faculty development (Itgel., et al, 2018). This means that faculty members feel disadvantaged in participating in and conducting high-quality academic research in a foreign language, mainly in English.

Internationalization of curriculum

At the national level, in the Roadmap 2021, the government of Mongolia (2010c) set out two important goals: to intensify the work to involve professional and technical schools' programs in an international accreditation in the strategic goal 2.2; and strategic goal 4 to bring closer the graduate degree programs to international standards. In regard to the curriculum development, currently, the Ministry of Education approves all curricula and their corresponding plans.[16] The National Council for Education Accreditation (NCEA), an independent external government agency, accredits HEIs and academic programs. As of 2015, the NCEA accredited 203 higher education programs.[17]

As indicated in the Roadmap 2021, the NCEA implemented the Higher Education Reform Project in 2012-2018 in cooperation with the ADB. One of the goals of this project aimed to develop a national program and curriculum with an expected outcome of improved quality and enhanced higher education programs.[18] As a result, an accreditation agency for study programs, ASIIN e.V from Germany, was selected to develop Twinning Project in Mongolia. Through this project, Mongolia hopes to strengthen the NCEA's accreditation system and improve the quality assurance of programs in higher education.

There is another project by the NCEA, in cooperation with the European Union's ERASMUS+ Project, called, "Promoting internationalization of research through establishment and operationalization of cycle 3 quality assurance system in line with the integration" (C3QA). The project aims to contribute to the establishment of a knowledge-based society in partner countries through the launch and operationalization of a robust quality assurance system for internationalization of Cycle 3 programs.[19] Currently, the project is in progress at two universities in Mongolia by focusing on updating the current national policy framework for doctoral level degree programs in line with the European integration agenda and establishing an external and internal quality assurance system.

It seems that internationalized curriculum also means an external accreditation by an international accreditation body (see Table 3). Accordingly, Mongolian HEIs seek external accreditations from international accreditation institutions such as Accreditation Council for Business Schools and Programs (ACBSP), Association for Medical

[15] Ministry of Education, Culture, Sciences, and Sports, 2017a.
[16] Ministry of Education and Sciences. (2016). *Education quality reform policy 2012-2016*. Retrieved from https://mecss.gov.mn/media/uploads/72c3d1c8-28a2-492c-979b-5b3c53d179d7.pdf
[17] National Council for Education Accreditation. (2019a). *Accredited higher education programs*. Retrieved from http://accmon.mn/accredited-programs/
[18] National Council for Education Accreditation. (2018). *ADB's Higher education reform project*. Retrieved from http://accmon.mn/higher-education-reform-project-of-adb/
[19] C3QA. (2019). *Promoting internationalization of research through establishment and operationalization of Cycle 3 Quality Assurance System in line with the European Integration Agenda / C3QA*.

Education in the Western Pacific Region (AMEWPR), and Accreditation Agency for Degree Programs in Engineering, Informatics, the Natural Sciences and Mathematics (ASIIN).

Table 3
Internationally accredited institutions

International Accreditation	University	Year of Accreditation
ACBSP	University of Finance and Economics	2012
	Business School, National University of Mongolia	2013
	School of Business Administration and Humanities	2013
	Mandakh Burgtel Institute	2014
	San Institute	2014
	Etugen University	2014
	Business School, University of Life Sciences	2014
	Ide Institute	2014
	National University of Economics	2017
	Otgontenger University	2017
	Business School, University of the Humanities	2017
	Institute of International Economics and Business	2017
AMEWPR	Medical School, Mongolian National University of Medical Sciences	2012
ASIIN	School of Energy, Mongolian University of Science and Technology	2015
	Mongolian National University of Medical Sciences	2016
	Mongolian University of Science and Technology	2016

Note: Data are from National Council for Education Accreditation[20]

Domestically, the government encourages national universities to update their curricula with contents that address international issues and provide intercultural communication skills. With regard to international standards, the government passed an order to follow the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization's International Standard Classification of Education. Accordingly, 817 fields of studies were reduced to 181 in 2014.[21] The development of joint/dual degree programs in a foreign language (mostly in English) also accelerates the internationalization of curriculum in higher education.

Student mobility

Mongolia hosted 1,520 inbound international students in 2017.[22] Of these, 56% were studying at the bachelor's level, 33% at the master's level and 11% at the PhD level. The geographical origin of incoming students reveals that the largest number of students are from China (969), Russia (182), and South Korea (132), representing 84% of all international students. Compared to the last five years, the number of international students increased by 0.7% (from 1,098 in 2012).[23] In addition, the "EBI" government-funded short-term scholarship (initiated by the former President Elbegdorj in 2017) encourages inbound student mobility. The purpose of the program is to support foreign young researchers and scholars conducting research in Mongolian studies. Currently, nine researchers from eight countries received this scholarship in 2017.[24]

As Enkhtur (2019) outlined, as of 2017, 17,674 Mongolian students[25] are estimated to be studying abroad at tertiary level[26] which is a large number when compared to the total domestic gross enrollment rate of 155,248

[20] National Council for Education Accreditation. (2019b). *International accreditation*. Retrieved from http://accmon.mn/international-accreditation/
[21] Ministry of Education and Sciences. (2014). *On approval of indexes for fields of education in undergraduate degree level*. Retrieved from https://mecss.gov.mn/law/200/
[22] Ministry of Education, Culture, Sciences, and Sports, 2017a
[23] Ministry of Education, Culture, Sciences, and Sports, 2017a
[24] Ministry of Foreign Affairs. (2017). *"EBI" Scholarship for Foreign Young Mongolists*. Retrieved from http://www.mfa.gov.mn/?p=40643
[25] CSIS-China power. (2018). *Is China both a source and hub for international students?* Retrieved from https://chinapower.csis.org/china-international-students/?fbclid=IwAR1TjGNTK17xKuzU1hveSW9vYGDJFUbOeyQVEW6rCj8qiGY06pVuaD1XMJE
[26] UNESCO Institute for Statistics. (2018). *Outbound mobility ratio* [online]. Available from: www.uis.unesco.org/education/Pages/international-

in 2017.[27] The lack of a quality higher education system has been one of the reasons for the outbound mobility of Mongolian students (Loo, 2017). During the Cold War period, the majority of Mongolian outbound students went to the Soviet Union and other communist countries, such as East Germany. As Mongolia was one of the closest satellite countries of the Soviet Union, the leaders and top professionals were prepared in the Soviet Union. The host countries diversified in the last two decades and in 2017 the top destination countries with most Mongolian students were China, South Korea, Japan, Russia, and the United States (see Table 4).

Table 4
Top destination countries of Mongolian outbound students (total outbound students 17,674)

Top country of destination (as of 2016)	Number of students enrolled in HEIs
China[a]	7628 (43%)
South Korea[b]	2259 (12.7%)
Japan[c]	1711 (9%)
Russia[b]	1654 (9%)
USA[b]	1425 (8%)

[a]CSIS, 2018 (Data from China's Foreign Affairs)[28]
[b]UIS, 2018[29]
[c]JASSO, 2017[30]

The government of Mongolia promotes study abroad programs with the aim to prepare domestic students for international careers and develop future high-level human resources. In 2014, the government commenced the Higher Engineering Education Development Project in cooperation with the Japan International Cooperation Agency to train 1,000 Mongolian engineering students in Japan by 2023. Currently, 400 students, faculty members, and researchers have received the scholarship.[31] In 1997-2017, 2076 students received Mongolian government and intergovernmental scholarships.

International partnership and collaboration

For HEIs worldwide, building relationships with counterparts abroad is seen as a key aspect of strategies for internationalization. A great number of HEIs around the world are eager to establish joint and dual degree programs and other types of partnerships with foreign institutions (especially in highly developed countries). With regard to internationalization abroad, Mongolian HEIs experience international partnership and collaboration in two ways: 1) joint/dual degree programs and student exchanges and 2) research and academic collaboration. Interestingly, the majority of joint/dual degree programs and exchanges are conducted in English with foreign partner universities in Asia, especially Japan, South Korea, China, and Taiwan weigh higher than in other regions. This trend is also observed in the online survey of this study (see more in detail from the online survey section). Examples of international collaboration show that 146 of 220 foreign partners with National University of Mongolia are from Asia, 83 of 137 at Mongolian University of Science and Technology, 47 of 70 at National University of Education and the list goes on (Figure 1). Student exchange programs are funded by an array of institutions, from private companies (e.g. Mitsubishi Scholarship) and national institutions (e.g. Mongolia-Namyangju Education Promotion Scholarship) to the government (e.g. Erasmus Mundus program).

Dual degree programs have become attractive for students interested in getting an international degree but have limited resources to complete full four years abroad. Thus, institutions offer such programs to attract more students and which require increased English language exposure, training, and quality in order to prepare students for partner institutions.

Research and academic collaboration is an excellent way to not only accelerate the internationalization process

student-flow-viz.aspx.
[27] Ministry of Education, Culture, Sciences, and Sports. (2018). *Statistical Report of Higher Education Sector: 2017-2018 academic year*. https://mecss.gov.mn/news/728/
[28] CSIS-China power, 2018.
[29] UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2018.
[30] JASSO. (2017). Trend of Mongolians students in Japan (2004-2017). Unpublished data.
[31] Munkhtulga, B. (2018, November 15). Our students will be coming as specialized engineers equipped with excellent Japanese and English, *Daily News*, 227, Ulaanbaatar.

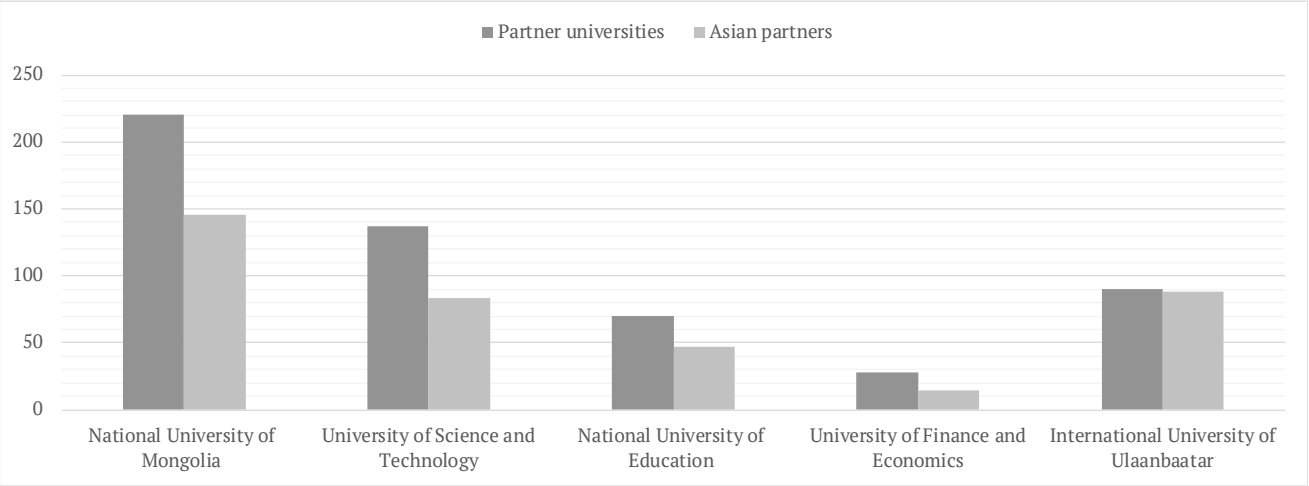

Figure 1. Cooperation with international partner universities.

but also enhance the institutional quality and improve the performance of partners. HEIs in Mongolia benefit from participating in effective research and academic collaborations with others, both within and outside the country. In 1974-2016, the government of Mongolia funded 4235 research projects (23.5% in natural science, 23.5% in technology, 22.8% in medical science, 17.8% in social science, and 12.4% in agricultural science).[32] However, joint projects make up a small percentage - 18% in the social sciences, 12% in natural sciences, 2% in medical science, 2% in the agriculture, and 2% in technology. In 2016, $3.1 million was allotted to HEIs for 164 research projects (MFST, 2016). Unfortunately, Mongolian HEIs have not yet released any accurate data regarding their academic collaboration with foreign institutions.

Survey results

This section reports the findings from the survey. The main aim of the survey is to analyze the rationales for EMI and its practice in two private universities and to investigate how the faculty members understand the rationales. This survey involves two institutions that have started offering EMI courses earlier, in a more extensive way, and implementing it more aggressively than other Mongolian universities (see Table 5).

Table 5
Profile of the universities

Basic information	University A	University B
Type of institution	Private	Private
Location	Ulaanbaatar	Ulaanbaatar
Approx. # of undergraduate students	4000	1000
Approx. total # of international undergraduate students	70	150
# of undergraduate EMI	12 (programs)	13 (programs)

Note: data are from the universities' websites

To interpret the survey results, I explored documents related to EMI courses and programs, including materials from each university's websites and brochures. The results of the survey are presented below focusing on the questions about faculty member's understandings of the internal and external factors for implementing EMI at their university, challenges that they encounter while teaching EMI courses, and as well as their recommendations and suggestions for the improvement and efficacy of EMI programs and courses.

What are the internal and external factors for implementing EMI programs?

This section explored the internal and external factors for implementing EMI programs at the two universities (see Table 6). The respondents were asked to rank the three most important internal and external factors that encouraged their university to implement EMI. In regards to internal factors, the majority of the respondents

[32] Mongolian Foundation for Science and Technology. (2016). *The 2016 Year Report*. Retrieved from http://www.stf.mn/

perceived that EMI programs were offered in order to improve their students' English proficiency and to prepare global citizens. This idea is connected to the notion of preparing global leaders who can be actively engaged in international activities through English. Faculties at University A ranked 'Increase the ranking of the university' as one of the main factors driving EMI policy while University B chose "Create an international environment for the students'.

Table 6 - *Comparison of internal and external factors*

	University A	University B
Internal Factors	Improve English skills of domestic students (20)*	Improve English skills of domestic students (20)*
	Prepare global citizens (18)*	Create an international environment for students (20)*
	Increase the ranking of the university (18)*	Prepare global citizens (20)*
External Factors	Student exchange programs (20)*	Student exchange programs (20)*
	International collaborations (20)*	International collaborations (20)*
	Domestic university ranking (18)*	Domestic university ranking (20)*

Note: (* number of faculty members who chose this response)

As for external factors, all respondents from both University A and University B believe that student exchange programs and international collaborations are the primary reasons for their universities to implement EMI programs. This pattern confirms the result of the document analysis that University A is actively engaged in international collaboration with foreign partner universities through various exchange degree programs. For University B, it seems the student exchange programs and international collaboration also play a crucial role in the implementation of EMI. In Mongolia, most of the student exchange programs in HEIs are run in English, hence EMI is seen as one of the external factors in the development of student exchange programs at these universities through international collaboration. Interestingly, the answers of the respondents of the two universities display that their universities place much emphasis on English education to raise their domestic university ranking, which is the third factor for implementing EMI.

Challenges

It is clear that there are many challenges that hinder the successful implementation of EMI. To gain a better understanding of these challenges, respondents were asked to choose the four most important challenges from the following key challenges.

- Student dissatisfaction
- Limited English proficiency of students
- Outside pressure
- Structural challenge
- Cultural challenge
- Increase in workload
- Linguistic difficulties
- Intercultural problems

Table 7 presents the list of challenges by the level of importance as determined by the number of respondents who ranked the challenges.

Table 7 - *Comparison of challenges*

University A	University B
Increase in workload (16)*	Linguistic difficulties (14)*
Outside pressure (16)*	Structural challenge (14)*
Structural challenge (14)*	Cultural challenge (14)*
Linguistic difficulties (14)*	Limited English proficiency of students (14)*

Note: (*number of respondents)

Table 7 illustrates that faculty members face difficulties in linguistics, culture-related issues, and structural problems. The linguistic difficulties include limitations in both professors' and students' English language proficiency, unfamiliar words, vocabularies and terminologies. Culture-related issues present challenges for educators accustomed to teaching a relatively homogeneous body of students as they may lack the intercultural knowledge and competencies as the introduction of EMI opens itself up to diverse student and teacher populations which differ in terms of academic cultural norms and expectations. Structural problems are those challenges related to the administration and management of the EMI program. For example, one such challenge involves language assessment policies for students and recruitment of local faculty members to teach EMI courses.

Recommendations and Suggestions

The survey had two open-ended questions and the purpose was to find out more about faculty members' experiences in EMI followed by a request to give their recommendations for those who are going to teach EMI courses and universities that are planning to offer EMI programs or courses. The answers showed that University A's faculty members focused more on the preparation of classes, pedagogical training for faculty members, and language issues while University B's faculty members gave more emphasis on collaborative ties between departments, and practical advice on what changes and challenges to expect.

In terms of recommendations for universities, University A's faculty members advised that a university planning to offer EMI programs or courses should provide their teachers with pedagogical training, course materials, and a good working environment. University B's faculty members recommended pedagogical training for faculty members, preparation of quality curriculums, and emphasis on English language proficiency of prospective students. It seems that pedagogical training or a workshop is important to the faculty members in order to work successfully in the EMI context and as well as the curricula along with course materials.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study attempted to explore the IoHE in Mongolia, current strategies and approaches to internationalization at the national and institutional levels, the concept of EMI policy and its implementation in Mongolian higher education context. Two research questions were raised:

1. What are the factors driving Mongolian higher education to pursue internationalization and English Medium Instruction?
2. How do the faculty members understand these rationales?

In terms of the first question, the document analysis illustrates that in a bigger picture, the world university rankings cause the government to push its national universities to pursue internationalization. The Mongolian government perceives the IoHE as a way to integrate international dimensions into higher education (Knight, 2003) in order to improve the quality of higher education (Soderqvist, 2002). It seems that academic rationales are more observed in the Mongolian higher education context. As Knight (2004) noted, academic rationales focus on the integration of an international dimension into research, teaching and academic standards, institution building, and enhancement of the institution's profile, status, and quality. According to Qiang (2003), there is an assumption that integrating the international dimension into teaching, research, and service enhances the quality of a higher education system. The notion of enhancing the quality of education is linked to the idea that internationalization serves as a positive change for institutional building.

Hazelkorn (2007) concludes from her study that world-ranking systems influenced key policymaking areas, e.g. the link between the classification of institutions and the allocation of funding. Indeed, the government of Mongolia has already classified the national universities as research-based or teaching-based universities. In her speech, Tsogzolmaa, the Minister of Education,[33] put great emphasis on rendering all types of support including financial support to one of the top national universities in order to enable them to compete in Asian ranking systems.

[33] Tsogzolmaa, Ts. (2017, December 5). We highly focus on the status of the National University of Mongolia. *Montsame*. Retrieved from https://montsame.mn/mn/read/74418

At the institutional level, national universities put a greater emphasis on rankings, research output in journals with a high impact factor, international collaboration and delivery of courses in English. As expected in the Roadmap for Higher Education Reform 2010–2021, Mongolia's first ambitious priority is to have four universities to be internationally visible at least in Asia by 2021.[34] However, the plan is way behind the schedule. None of the government policy documents clearly described which of the popular global university rankings the national universities should follow. The ranking systems are different in terms of their indicators. If Mongolia wants to make some of its top national universities to be visible at least in Asia, they will definitely need to increase the number of international students and international faculty members and research output, as well as international collaborations. The current position and status of national universities in Mongolia show that they are most likely to fail if they do not consider the above areas. As for private universities in Mongolia, they may compete with each other but not with national universities. The reason is that currently there is no comprehensive private university in Mongolia and most of the private universities are social and human sciences universities. In comparison to national universities, private institutions are increasingly applying for international accreditations to compete for high-tuition paying domestic students. Although the government of Mongolia has made progress through strategic actions and projects in the higher education sector, Mongolia's internationalization efforts are still dispersed and managed in an ad-hoc fashion. One of the main reasons is that higher education policies and laws are not stable and they constantly change. Consequently, the internationalization process is slowing.

Within the framework of the dimensions of internationalization, it is interesting to see in the first dimension of faculty development that the government of Mongolia and the national universities put more emphasis on developing the existing faculty members rather than recruiting international faculty. Both the government and national universities believe that increasing the number of faculties with PhD degrees (preferably in developed countries) would help to increase the universities' research output and international reputation. However, this raises two issues. First, currently, there is no national policy focusing on the development of the existing or new faculty members. Second, it is still not clear how stable government policy will be to support HEIs. In other words, the delay in the implementation of faculty development makes the progress in internationalization policy slow. More active and dedicated actions toward faculty development and incentives may lead to the growth in the proportion of top-tier journal papers. Thus, the Mongolian government should consider actions to intensify faculty development on a substantial scale for the development of scientific research in the country.

Internationalization of the curriculum is also an important dimension of internationalization in Mongolian higher education. As Leask (2015, p.9) defined, internationalization of curriculum is, "the incorporation of international, intercultural, and/or global dimensions into the content of the curriculum as well as the learning outcomes, assessment tasks, teaching methods, and support services of a program of study". Internationalization of curriculum requires a change at the program level in order to impact on the student experience and bring an intercultural experience into the classroom (Foster & Anderson, 2015).

Internationalization of curriculum is divided into nine types of categories in "Typology for Internationalizing Curriculum" proposed by Bremer & Van der Wende (1995). Accordingly, based on the document analysis, the internationalized curricula in Mongolian higher education context most often conformed to the types 1 (curricula with an international subject), 3 (curricula which prepare students for international professions), 4 (curricula in foreign languages or linguistics which explicitly address cross-communication issues and provide training in intercultural skills), 5 (interdisciplinary programs), 6 (curricula leading to internationally recognized professional qualifications), and 7 (curricula leading to joint or double degrees).

As for the third and fourth dimensions of internationalization, it is clear that private rather than national universities are more likely to utilize the forms of international delivery through joint and dual degree programs as Deschamps and Lee (2015) claimed. Joint and dual degree programs in Mongolia support domestic students to study abroad rather than to recruit international students. The medium of instruction in the courses offered in the joint and dual degree programs is mainly English. The country will remain disadvantaged if the number of programs in English is not leveraged. This is crucial to many aspects of internationalization. While many foreign institutions implement EMI to attract international students, this does not seem to be a practice at Mongolian HEIs. Most Mongolian universities have no intention to attract international students except very

[34] Ministry of Education, Culture, and Sciences. (2010). *Roadmap for Higher Education Reform 2010-2021.* Retrieved from http://www.mesc.gov.mn/article-398-435.mw

few private universities. Universities tend to encourage domestic students to study abroad in order to prepare human resource who will be able to work in a diverse and competitive international market.

The Mongolian government is the key player in IoHE by making policies, taking initiatives, and encouraging national universities. However, the process of internationalization is much slower in private HEIs. More in-depth research and particularly qualitative research of a comparative nature is clearly needed in order to gain greater insights into how the IoHE is implemented at national and institutional levels.

As Macaro et al. (2018) concluded, the rationales for adopting EMI in a broader global context include: 1) a perceived need to internationalize the university; 2) the need to attract foreign students due to the decreasing number of domestic students; 3) the need to financially sustain HEIs; 4) competition between national and private HEIs; and 5) the importance of English in academic research publications. In comparison, the online survey analysis identified that faculty members understand that their universities implement EMI for the following three reasons: 1) increasing the employability of domestic graduates in an international market; 2) promotion of international collaboration; and 3) improving domestic and international profile. These three reasons are interrelated. Private universities promote international collaboration via joint and dual degree EMI programs and pay greater attention to the employment ratio of their graduates due to the increasing demands of international and domestic business organizations to hire graduates who will be able to work internationally. English language knowledge is one of the main requirements for employment. As noted, this survey was conducted for the first time in the Mongolian context. Due to some limitations in this study, a more in-depth study including interviews with the faculty members and administrators of EMI programs should be conducted to have a more complete view of the EMI in Mongolia. In addition, a comparison of data from other private universities would have been valuable.

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Appendix 1

Online questionnaire

Thank you for your consideration to take part in this study. This survey is for teachers who teach courses in English or those who are part of programs that offer courses in English. The purposes of this survey are to explore the English Medium Instruction (EMI) policy at the institutional level, analyze the EMI practices in higher education institutions, and investigate factors that influence the decision-making and adoption of EMI policy at the institutional level. This study is part of doctoral thesis research of Mr Gundsambuu SAINBAYAR at Graduate School of Human Sciences, Osaka University.

This survey will take about 10-15 minutes to fill out. Your response to this survey will be anonymous and all personal information will be confidential. If you agree to participate in this study, please complete the following survey. Should you have any questions, please contact Mr Sainbayar at sgundsam@fulbrightmail.org. This study uses the definition of EMI by Oxford Center as, "*The use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English*."

I. Personal information (* Required)

Email address *
Age *
Gender *
- Female
- Male

Nationality *
Academic degree level *
- Master's Degree
- Doctoral student
- Doctor's Degree

Total years of teaching experience *
Years of EMI teaching *
Current position *

II. Survey questions

1. What courses do you teach in English? (Please write the course names)
2. Do you teach in the local language, too?
   - o Yes
   - o No
3. How many EMI courses do you teach per year? *
4. How long have you been teaching at the current university? *
5. What level of students do you teach? * (Select only one that applies)
   - o undergraduate students
   - o graduate students
   - o both
   - o Other:
6. How do you see the objectives for implementing EMI courses at your university? * (Select only one per row)

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
to help improve the English skills of domestic students					
to provide an international educational environment to international and domestic students					
to improve the international outlook of the university					
to attract more international students					

to generate income for the university					
to increase the ranking of the university					
to improve the teaching and program quality of the university					
to foster and produce leaders who will be active in the global community					
to promote international collaborations					

7. Have you ever been involved in any of the decision-making processes of adoption of EMI at your university? *
   - o Yes (If "yes", please go to question No. 8)
   - o No (If "no", please go to question No. 9)
8. What level have you been involved? Please check all possible answers. * (Select all that apply)
   - o Decision-making committee
   - o Administration
   - o Institutional policy plan to adopt EMI
   - o Research on EMI policy
   - o Curriculum design
   - o Program design
   - o Fundraising
   - o Other:
9. What do you think are the reasons/factors that influenced your university to adopt EMI? * (Select only one per row)

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
domestic university rankings					
global university rankings					
the decrease in enrollment of domestic students					
funding from the government					
international collaboration					
student exchange programs					
preparation of globally competitive graduates					
increase in national economic competitiveness					

10. What are the expected outcomes of the implementation of EMI at your university? * (Select only one per row)

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
increase in domestic rankings					
increase in international rankings					
more financial support					
highly skilled domestic students					
more internationalized domestic students					
more internationalized university					
student employment results					

11. What do you think is the progress of EMI implementation at your university? * (Select only one)

	1	2	3	4	5	
Poor						Excellent

12. What challenges associated with the EMI have you experienced? * (Select only one per row)

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
intercultural problems					
linguistic difficulties					

increase in workload					
cultural challenge					
structural challenge					
outside pressure					
limited English proficiency					
student dissatisfaction					

13. How have you overcome obstacles in the EMI courses? * (Select all that apply)
    - o support from the university
    - o teach in a mix of languages
    - o group students based on ability
    - o lowered the assessment criteria of course assignments
    - o discussion with students to identify their weaknesses and anxiety issues
    - o attend an intensive support course focused on linguistic and pedagogic issues
    - o shape the teaching context to suit students' needs
    - o Other:
14. Have you been provided with any type of training or support to help you work successfully in the EMI courses or programs? *
    - o Yes (If "yes", please go to question No. 15.)
    - o No (If "no", please go to question No. 16.)
15. Please check what type of training or support you were provided. * (Select all that apply)
    - o language
    - o intercultural communication
    - o pedagogical
    - o assessment
    - o financial support
    - o Other:
16. If extra-training or support were to be offered, what type of training or support would you like to receive? * (Select all that apply)
    - o language
    - o intercultural communication
    - o pedagogical
    - o assessment
    - o financial support
    - o educational materials
    - o Other:

17. What advice would you give to teachers who are going to work on an EMI course or program? *

18. What advice would you give to a university, which is going to introduce or implement EMI? *

Thank you very much for completing this survey.

I would like to invite you to participate in a follow-up interview to elaborate on your opinion regarding your experience in teaching EMI courses in Mongolia. The interview will last for 40 minutes to 1 hour. Are you willing to participate in the interview?

- o Yes
- o No

Thank you very much for taking part in the study.

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The Influence of the Teaching Style of Communication on the Motivation of Students to Learn Foreign Languages

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Nowadays, when the role of knowing foreign languages is extremely high and the demand for specialists who are proficient in a language is continuing to increase, we face the problem of a lack of desire to learn foreign languages among non-linguistic majors. We supposed that the type of teacher-student interaction style (authoritarian, democratic, and liberal) could influence students' motivation type (internal, external positive, external negative, or amotivation) and this was the aim of the study. We surveyed 230 second-year students of the intramural form of study seeking a baccalaureate degree from Moscow State University of Food Production. Among the respondents there were 143 girls and 87 boys aged 18-20, citizens of the Russian Federation. The experiment was divided into three stages and it took three semesters to complete the study. The aim of the first stage was to investigate students' preferences related to teacher-student interaction style, and the prevailing type of learning motivation to study and to learn foreign languages. The second stage of the study was aimed to investigate how teacher-student interaction style influences the nature and type of students' motivation to learn. In the last stage of the study, the output testing of student performance was implemented and all the results from the previous stages were compared and analyzed. The results of the experiment clearly demonstrated that both authoritarian and democratic teacher-student interaction styles could have a positive influence on students' educational behaviour and academic performances while the implementation of the liberal teacher-student interaction style led to amotivation. At the same time, the democratic style, contrary to the authors' hypothesis, predominantly provoked external motivation, while an authoritarian style significantly activated internal motivation.

Keywords: teacher-student interaction style, teaching style, motivation, student performance

Introduction

In today's era of scientific and technical revolution with the arrival of the internet and the modern means of communications coupled with increased in the migration process and increasing mobility, the boundaries between countries and nations are disappearing. People from different parts of the globe have been interacting more and more often and creating diverse educational, cultural, scientific, economic, political, and business collaborations and relations. In this context, the role of foreign languages in modern society are incredibly huge. In spite of the fact that English acts as a global language, a so-called "lingua franca", functioning both in scientific and intellectual discourse and as a mean of routine communication' (Tikhonova & Raitskaya, 2018), a wide range of foreign languages are becoming more significant as evidenced by their integration in the everyday usage of modern specialists (Chinese, Spanish, Arabic, etc.). This can easily be explained by the political and industrial development of several regions around the globe.

According to the French linguist F. Debyser (1983), "an educated person of the XXI century must speak fluently at least two languages of the world where the distance between countries has shortened but the language barriers have not been broken". However, currently being proficient in a foreign language is not just an additional element of the common culture of an educated person, it is a hard necessity. The demand for specialists who are proficient in a foreign language has also been increasing from year to year. Foreign language communicative competence is becoming one of the most important selection criterions in employment and a key factor for career development. Thus, in the current social and economic situation, the learning of foreign languages pursues command of that language as a mean of intercultural communication for the achievement of social and domestic as well as educational and professional demands. However, in spite of the heightened necessity of foreign language communicative competence and the great demand for specialists knowing foreign languages, non-linguistic university students worldwide take little interest in foreign language learning.

There are several reasons explaining the current circumstances but one of the most basic ones is low or no motivation to learn foreign languages. In this respect it is important to highlight the the necessity of developing non-linguistic university students' motivation to learn foreign languages. Solving this problem is a challenge for university teachers of foreign languages. It has been recognized that teachers are key actors in shaping the learning environment, which is an important factor in forming students' educational motivation (Eccles & Roeser, 2011; Pintrich, 2004). One of the most important teachers' tasks is to create a learning environment that enhances and sustains students' educational or academic motivation and engages students in learning (Hornstra, Mansfield, van der Veen, Peetsma, & Volman, 2015).

Motivation

The term "motivation" has been studied from multiple scientific perspectives, including the psychodynamic, the behaviorist, the humanistic, the goal-setting, the physiological, the phenomenological, the cultural, and the cognitive (Kaplan, 2008; Ryan, 2012; Schunk, 2015). But all of them are characterized by their cross-disciplinary features and touch upon psychology, education, and management. The word "motivation" is widely discussed in scientific studies and it is characterized by the existence of numerous definitions but the authors agree on some key points, mainly that motivation is a deeply psychological phenomenon can generally be defined as the force that governs a person's behavior and drives him/her to be engaged in goal-directed actions (Jenkins & Demaray, 2015; Schunk, Pintrich & Meece, 2009; Schunk, 2015).

Self-determination theory proposed and described by Edward L. Deci and Richard M. Ryan (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Deci, 1975; Deci, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000) is a commonly used theory that touches upon all spheres of human life: education, work, and everyday life. In the frame of this theory, motivation is divided into autonomous (internal or intrinsic) and controlled (external or extrinsic) motivation. According to Deci and Ryan, "autonomous motivation involves behaving with a full sense of volition and choice, whereas controlled motivation involves behaving with the experience of pressure and demand toward specific outcomes that comes from forces perceived to be external to the self" (Deci, 2008). Some researchers suggest considering "amotivation" as a type of motivation (Duchatelet & Donche, 2019; Ferrari, 1992; Lai, Chui, Wong, & Chan, 2019; Lee, Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2019; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Titrek, Çetin, Kaymak, & Kaşikçi, 2018; Vallerand et al., 1992). People who are amotivated demonstrate an absence of intent to participate in any activity or do not

have any goals to achieve (Titrek et al., 2018).

Motivation to learn, or educational (academic) motivation, is of great importance as it is closely interrelated to academic achievements and performance (Comeau, Huta, Lu, & Swirp, 2019; Duchatelet & Donche, 2019; Liu & Chiang, 2019; Titrek et al., 2018). Internal academic motivation is associated with more positive academic performance than external motivation as internal motivation is about personal interest and a desire to do something and external motivation is stimulated from outside (e.g. high marks). However, according to K. Zamfir (Zamfir, 1983), external motivation can be divided into external positive and external negative motivation types. External positive motivatin is based on positive impetus (e.g. high marks). External negative motivation is stimulated by the negative factors (e.g. punishment).

Educational or academic motivation can be defined as a form of cognitive and emotional arousal that influences a learner's academic achievement (Vallerand, 1997). According to K. Hakan and E. Münire (Hakan & Münire, 2014), academic motivation is an internal state that activates, directs, and maintains learning-related behaviors. Educational motivation is the psychological background of the whole teaching-learning process. In other words, it is an internal impulse to get engaged in an activity. Educational motivation is also always tightly integrated with emotions and emotional state.

Emotions are always responsible for a person's attraction or aversion to one activity or another. A teacher, acting as a kind of a psychologist, has to know how to influence students' emotional states to achieve teaching goals. Lowman believes that teachers are performers and they use their voices, gestures, and movements to elicit and maintain attention and to stimulate students' emotions. Like other performers, teachers must convey a strong sense of presence, using highly focused energy (Lowman, 1984; McCaslin & Lowman, 2006). In other words, an effective teacher is able to create a motivating classroom environment.

Teaching styles

Teaching is not a simple job (Pennings & Hollenstein, 2019), mainly because of the complexity of teacher-student relationships and the necessity to choose the appropriate role for the teacher in a variety of unique situations. That is why there are a lot of studies dedicated to teacher-student relationships and teacher behavior type and its influence on classroom learning environments, on students' motivation to study, and academic outcomes both in one particular subject and overall studies both at secondary school and at university (Fisher, den Brok, Waldrip, & Dorman, 2011; Koka, 2013; Pennings & Hollenstein, 2019; Telli, 2016; Wei, den Brok, & Zhou, 2009; Zhu, 2013).

There are three main teacher-student interaction styles, and they are based on management styles: authoritarian, democratic, and liberal. However, different numbers of teacher-student interaction styles in related research.

There are various descriptions of teaching styles (teacher-student interaction styles) in modern literature. But in a broad sense, teaching (pedagogical) style can be defined as an identifiable set of classroom behaviors associated with and carried out by the instructor. Grasha (1996) describes teaching style as worked out personal qualities and behaviors that manifest in a teacher's individual way of conducting their classes. Sternberg (1997) says that it is a teacher's preferred way of solving problems, carrying out tasks, and making decisions in the process of teaching, and, besides differing from individual to individual, may sometimes differ between different groups, for example schools.

An authoritarian teaching style characterized by the sovereign authority of a teacher, his/her insistence on high standards, an all-or-nothing mentality, a readiness to punish rather than praise, discipline, and the strict planning of classroom activities. A democratic style can be defined by cooperation in the educational process of decision making, activity planning, educational goal setting and achieving, the development of students' self-dependence and self-government, creativity, and initiative praising. A liberal style is specified by permissiveness, a teacher's policy of noninterference and noninvolvement, the absence of a defined educational activity plan and distinct goals, the teacher's distance from students' lives, interests, and educational needs.

In spite of the number of investigations related to the aforementioned teaching styles and their impact on the educational process, there is an evident lack of studies regarding the influence of pedagogical style on

students' motivation to learn. The purpose of this research was to identify the characteristics influencing the educational motivation of university students based on the pedagogical style of the teacher (democratic, liberal, or authoritarian). The hypothesis was that students' involvement in the process of forming of cooperative and creative educational activities in classes; being given more freedom in participating in the organizing, problem solving, and decision making process related to educational activities; as well as the opportunity to display the initiative, creativity, and self-government would help in forming students' stable internal motivation to learn.

Materials and methods

Participants

We surveyed 230 second-year students of the intramural form of study seeking a baccalaureate degree from Moscow State University of Food Production for the experiment. Among the respondents, there were 143 girls and 87 boys aged 18-20, citizens of the Russian Federation. All the respondents took part in the experiment voluntary but they were not informed about the genuine aim of the research or its details. This was done to assure natural behaviour during the experiment, to obtain the most genuine results possible. The experiment lasted three semesters. All respondents were divided into groups of 15 people. The teacher for the each particular group did not change over the course of the entire experiment.

Methods

During the experiment, several methods were implemented. First of all, the number of theoretical methods such as analysis and synthesis, induction and deduction, analogy, formalization, modeling, methods of hypotheses and axiomatic, system method, and approach were used during the designing the questionnaires and their interpretations. However, the main methods were methods for the practical implementation of each teaching styles, observation, control, interview, and comparison.

Materials

In order to examine students' preferences or attitudes related to teaching style, as well as teacher-student interaction style, a questionnaire consisting of four multiple-choice questions (Table 1) was applied.

This questionnaire was designed to group students' preferences into three categories, which were relevant to one of the aforementioned teaching styles. All the "A" answers reflected the authoritarian style, all the "B" questions the democratic style, and the "C" questions the liberal one.

To score the results, one point should be given for each answer, than all the points for each category "a", "b" and "c" should be summed individually. Students are then assigned to the category with the highest total.

In order to identify the prevailing type of learning motivation and its subtype (namely internal or external (positive/ negative)) the questionnaire was developed on the basis of Academic motivation scale (AMS), developed by R. J. Vallerand (Vallerand et al., 1992). We adopted this method to our needs and interests, namely we shortened the original questionaire and modified the content. Our questinaire was divided into two steps. The first step aimed to reveal the prevailing type of learning motivation to study and supposed that students reported on the items from Table 2 in accordance with their own needs and concerns.

The result should be scored by the following way:

Internal motivation (IM) = (the mark of question № 6 + the mark of question № 7) / 2
External positive motivation (EPM) = (the mark of question № 1 + the mark of question № 2 + the mark of question № 5) / 3
External negative motivation (ENM) = (the mark of question № 3 + the mark of question № 4) / 2

The higher mark grade is the stronger motivation is.

Table 1
The questionnaire revealing students' preferences related to teaching style and educational teacher-student interaction style

	Questions
1	I prefer the teacher who
	a. formulates goals and objectives him/herself, makes students follow all his instructions;
	b. engages students in the process of goal setting and praises initiative in their their achievements;
	c. doesn't set any goals and objects at all.
2	I prefer the teacher who
	a. expresses his/her opinions clearly and does not tolerate any objections and disputes;
	b. tends to sort out all problems in the form of a dialogue, always takes students' opinion, interests, and needs into account;
	c. tries to remain neutral.
3	I prefer the teacher who
	a. demands that students follow all the instruction during class and doesn't welcome any kind of student initiative;
	b. praises initiative and creativeness;
	c. lets students decide themselves what to do.
4	I prefer the teacher who is
	a. a leader;
	b. a colleague;
	c. an observer.
	Percentage

Table 2
The method of research of the prevailing type of learning motivation to study in common

Why do you study?

	doesn't fit (1)	**rather doesn't fit (2)**	**something in between (3)**	**rather fits (4)**	**fits (5)**
1.	The desire get a diploma				
2.	Studying is a duty I cannot neglect.				
3.	Because my relatives want me to study				
4.	I do not know exactly				
5.	I love to study, to solve complex problems and feel competent.				
6.	Studying gives me the opportunity to develop my own skills				

For the purpose of revealing and estimating the way the students' motivation type changes after "trying on" each of the teacher-student interaction styles (authoritarian, democratic, and liberal) the students were asked to respond to the items in Table 4.

Procedure

The experiment was divided into three stages and it took us three semesters to complete the study. The aim of the first stage was to investigate the students' preferences related to teaching style, teacher-student interaction style, and the prevailing type of learning motivation to study and learn foreign languages before the main part of the experiment. Two hundred thirty students took part in the interview and answered four multiple choice questions (see Table 1). They were then asked to respond to the items from Table 2 and 3. After that, the

incoming English tests were conducted and the educational success of each participant was recorded. It can be stated that this stage was the pre-experiment observation.

The second stage of the study was aimed to investigate how the teacher-student interaction style influenced the nature and type of students' motivation to learn. This was the main stage of the experiment and it lasted three semesters. During the first semester, students studied within the framework of one teaching style, and then over the next two semesters, the teacher changed his/her teaching style. Thus, each of the students was able to "try on" the authoritarian, democratic, and liberal teacher-student interaction style. At Moscow State University of Food Production a point-rating system was applied for students' peformances assessment. We used this system as the main estimation method. During the English classes each semester were assessed such students' activities in class as work during the lesson, involvement in preparing homework, performing creative tasks, and progress tests. The maximum score was 100 points, which equaled 100%. All the results of student performance after each semester were converted into the Academic Grade Average, and this is represented in Table 5. At the end of each semester students reported on the items from Table 4 as well. All the results were scored and recorded for analysis in the last stage of the study.

Table 3

The method of research of the prevailing type of learning motivation to learn foreign languages

How is it important for you in the English lessons?

		not important (1)	**in a little measure (2)**	**in a medium measure (3)**	**in a great enough measure (4)**	**in a great measure (5)**
1	High marks					
2	The desire speak English fluently, because it is necessary for an educated person nowadays					
3	The desire to escape from teacher's and group mates' criticism					
4	The desire to escape from punishment					
5	The desire to be the best student					
6	The satisfaction from the process of learning the subject					
7	The possibility to develop one's own skills in this subject					

Table 4

The method of research of the prevailing type of learning motivation after implementing one of the educational teacher-student interaction style (the authoritarian, democratic and liberal)

I studied English during this semester because

		doesn't fit (1)	**rather doesn't fit (2)**	**something in between (3)**	**rather fits (4)**	**fits (5)**
1	I wanted to get high marks.					
2	I wanted to speak English fluently is necessary for an educated person nowadays.					
3	of the desire to escape from teacher's and group mates' criticism.					
4	of the desire to escape from punishment.					
5	of the desire to be the best student in the group.					
6	of the satisfaction from the process of learning the subject.					
7	of the possibility of developing my own skills in this subject.					

In the last stage of the study, the output testing of student performance was implemented and all the results from the previous stage were compared and analyzed (Ivanova, Shlenskaya, Khorokhorina, & Kurbakova, 2019). Furthermore, the results of the questionnaire revealing students' preferences related to teaching style and teacher-student interaction style made before the experiment (see Table 5) were compared to the results of the main study. The aim was to identify if the teacher-student interaction style could change the preferences of students to teaching style and, as a result, encourage better academic performance.

Results and discussion

The study made it possible to obtain data related to the influence of the educational teacher-student interaction style on the motivation of students to learn.

Table 5
Results of the questionnaire revealing students' preferences related to teaching style and educational teacher-student interaction style

	Question	Quantity of chosen answers "A"	Quantity of chosen answers "B"	Quantity of chosen answers "C"
1	I prefer the teacher who a. formulates goals and objectives himself, makes students follow all his instructions; b. engages students in the process of goal setting and praises initiative in their achievements; c. doesn't set any goals and objects at all.	131	74	25
2	I prefer the teacher who a. expresses his/her opinions clearly and does not tolerate any objections and disputes; b. tends to sort out all problems in the form of a dialogue, always takes students' opinion, interests and needs in account; c. tries to remain neutral.	99	78	53
3	I prefer the teacher who a. demands students follow all the instruction during the class and doesn't welcome any kind of initiative; b. praises initiative and creativeness; c. lets students decide themselves what to do.	138	48	44
4	I prefer the teacher who is a. a leader; b. a colleague; c. an observer.	120	73	37
	Percentage	50 %	29.75 %	17.25 %

Table 5 shows that the most preferable teacher-student interaction style among students was the authoritarian style. Answers "A" were chosen by 53% of the students. Based on these results, we came to the conclusion that the majority of the respondents tended to be led and controlled by the teacher and preferred following their teachers' instructions instead of taking the initiative and being pro-active and self-governed. Next, 29.75% of the respondents chose the democratic teacher-student interaction style. This is a collaborative way of educational activity and the students who choose this specific way of teacher-student interaction are striving to be a full-fledged participant in the educational process. Their desire is to demonstrate creativeness and show initiative. They are ready to take on educational decisions and be responsible for the results. Finally, the least number of students selected the liberal style. Ony 17.25% of students surveyed didn't mind if the teacher was neutral or unconcerned about the educational process and students' interests, needs, or success in learning. These students are mainly amotivated. They don't want to study at all, that is why they show full indifference to the teacher-student relationships and educational process in general.

The findings showed that before the experiment 120 students (52.2%) reported intrinsic motivation, 82 students (35.6%) had extrinsic motivation, and only 28 people (12.2%) were amotivated.

The findings also showed that before the study only 51 students (22.2%) came in with intrinsic motivation, 142

people (61.7%) with extrinsic motivation, and 37 respondent (16.1%) were amotivated.

The Academic Grade Average based on the incoming test of the respondents before the study worked out to 71% equaling an educational mark of "4". This is because 57 respondents (24.8 %) got the mark "5", 126 respondents (54,8 %) got the mark "4", 43 students (18.7 %) got the mark "3", and just 4 people (1.7 %) got the mark "2".

The main stage of the study showed that authoritarian and democratic teacher-student interaction styles had a more positive effect on students' academic performance, while the liberal style had a negative effect (see Table 6).

Table 6
The Academic Grade Average recordings

The authoritarian teaching style	**The democratic teaching style**	**The liberal teaching style**
87 % equals "5"	75 % equal "4"	62 % equals "3"

A comparative analysis of the results encouraged us to conclude that students' motivation to learn English was higher in those periods when the authoritarian and democratic teacher-student interaction style were implemented. Furthermore, the democratic style encouraged predominantly external positive motivation, while the authoritarian style significantly activated internal motivation. It is should be brought into focus that the liberal teacher-student interaction style took a heavy toll on the students' motivation, as it activated predominantly external negative motivation or made students amotivated (see Table 7).

Table 7
Overall performance of the teacher-student interaction style influence on the formation of the prevailing type of learning motivation

Authoritarian teacher-student interaction style			
Internal motivation	External positive motivation	External negative motivation	Amotivation
135	51	40	4
58.7 %	22.2 %	17.4 %	1.7 %
Democratic teacher-student interaction style			
Internal motivation	External positive motivation	External negative motivation	Amotivation
73	101	51	5
31.7 %	43.9 %	22.2 %	2.2 %
Liberal teacher-student interaction style			
Internal motivation	External positive motivation	External negative motivation	Amotivation
10	22	167	31
4 %	10 %	72.6 %	13.4 %

The comparison of the results revealing students' preferences related to teaching style and teacher-student interaction style obtained before the experiment (see Table 5) and the results obtained after the main study showed that 99% of the respondents who preferred the authoritarian teacher-student interaction style had better academic performance while being taught with an authoritarian teacher-student interaction style. Only 1% of the respondents who preferred the authoritarian teacher-student interaction style demonstrated better academic performance while being taught within the frame of democratic teacher-student interaction style. Sixty-six percent of the respondents who preferred the democratic teacher-student interaction style confirmed their choice while 33.4% went with the authoritarian teacher-student interaction style. And 29.4% of those who chose the liberal teacher-student interaction style didn't change their opinion while 70.6% had better marks when being taught with the authoritarian or democratic teacher-student interaction style. This fact helped us come to the conclusion that in most cases the respondents' preferences to teacher-student interaction style didn't change. Our respondents were young adults and by the time they entered university they understood which types of relationships with teacher were more productive or effective for them. However, in some cases the respondents' preferences to one teacher-student interaction style or another could change.

The results of conducted study allow us to state that the formation of student's motivation to learn foreign languages is interconnected and depends on teacher-student interaction style. By using a given style of teacher-student interaction, the teacher can manipulate not only the students' academic performance but also their emotional state, and as a result their desire to become a full-fledged educational participant or just an observer (Ivanova et al., 2019). However, we should state that our hypothesis was not confirmed and the most positive effect on students' academic performances and motivation type to learn foreign languages was shown to be the authoritarian teacher-student interaction, not the democratic one.

The experiment demonstrated that most students consciously preferred the authoritarian teacher-student interaction style (see Table 5) and this was evidenced in the main part of our study (see Tables 6 and 7). A greater number of students want to be lead and strictly instructed during the educational process. They do not want to take the initiative, be creative, and be responsible for the educational process and the result. The interaction "teacher-leader/student" creates more productive conditions to encourage Russian students' internal motivation to learn. However, it is worthwhile to state that there was one group of students that demonstrated positive academic performances and formed internal motivation after having learned under the democratic style for one semester. We should also pay attention to that fact that the liberal teaching style has an adverse effect on students' academic performance and the students' motivation was essentially degraded or fully absent. When the teacher plays the role of teacher-observer or consultant and is not concerned about the educational process or lets students decide for themselves what to do or not to do, the students lose their motivation.

Conclusions

At a time when the importance of knowing of foreign languages is extremely high and the demand for specialists who are proficient in a foreign language is increasing, we are facing the problem of low motivation to learn a foreign language among non-linguistic majors. We proposed that the type of teacher-student interaction style could influence student motivation and this study was designed to explore this question and find out how teacher-student interaction style (the authoritarian, democratic, or liberal) influenced the type of motivation (internal, external positive, external negative or amotivation). After conducting our study, we came to the conclusion that the choice of teaching style plays a great role in students' motivation, leading to internal and positive and negative external motivation, as well as amotivation. The results of the experiment clearly demonstrate that both authoritarian and democratic teacher-student interaction styles can have a positive influence on students' educational behaviour and academic performance while the implementation of the liberal teacher-student interaction style led to motivational decreases or to amotivation thus resulting in a decrease in academic performance. At the same time, we can assume than the combining of teaching styles according to students' needs, interests, and preferences can bring about more prolific educational results. Furthermore, a comparison of the results of the questionnaire revealing students' preferences related to teacher-student interaction style obtained before the experiment and the results obtained after the main study led us to suggest that in order to increase the level of motivation to learn foreign languages and to create the most comfortable learning environment for each particular student group, the interview or questionnaire on students' preferences related to teacher-student interaction style should be applied and the results use to help teachers organize their educational strategic plans.

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Nihongo Speech Trainer: A Pronunciation Training System for Japanese Sounds

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This article will present the methodology, as well as the results, of a pilot study of the 'Nihongo Speech Trainer' aimed at helping Thai learners improve their ability to identify Japanese contrasts. The pilot study was performed on 15 participants. The tool focuses on specific contrasts that are problematic for Thai learners such as Japanese fricatives and affricates. Perceptual training uses a high-variability phonetic training method (hereafter referred to as "HVPT perceptual training"). Each training session included 90 minimal pairs in which the target contrasts were embedded in initial, medial and final positions. The training stimuli were produced by seven Japanese native speakers. The results of the pilot study showed that the use of the Nihongo Speech Trainer can lead to better perception of the trained Japanese sounds. The results of a questionnaire among the participants also showed that the system helped to improve their perception and production ability. However, despite these positive results with the use of the Nihongo Speech Trainer, there is room for improvement, which may lead to better training results.

Keywords: Nihongo Speech Trainer, HVPT perceptual training, L2 speech perception, perception training

Introduction

Perceptual training using a high variability phonetic training method has been shown to be the most effective tool in improving learners' abilities to accurately perceive L2 consonants, vowels and suprasegmentals, such as pitch and tone. Furthermore, the improvements gained from this type of training have also been shown to have been generalised to new tokens and new talkers, and these improvements have been retained in the long-term (Lively et al., 1993; Bradlow et al., 1999; Hirata, 2004; Iverson et al., 2012). Some studies have also reported that perceptual improvements have successfully generalised to production (Bradlow et al., 1999; Lambacher, et al., 2005). However, despite these promising results, very little additional research has directly investigated the application of HVPT in computer-assisted pronunciation training applications (Barriuso & Hayes-Harb, 2018). Moreover, as Thomson (2011) also stated, if a web-based application were available, it "would allow endless research possibilities, as teachers and researchers could collaborate remotely, monitoring the effect of perceptual training and its impact on pronunciation, in order to improve future iterations of the software" (p. 760). For this reason, for the purposes of this current project, a web-based tool called the "Nihongo Speech Trainer" has been created, aiming to provide a freely available website to Thai learners who can improve the Japanese sounds they wish to work on by adopting theoretical HVPT perceptual training within a computer-assisted pronunciation training application. The development of the Nihongo Speech Trainer was funded by Mahidol University as part of a year-long project based at the Faculty of Liberal Arts of Mahidol University. This article provides an overview of the Nihongo Speech Trainer – a web-based online pronunciation training program designed for Japanese pronunciation training, as well as the results of the pilot study aimed at detecting potential problems that may occur in the main study.

Method

Participants

The pilot study was conducted with a group of 15 Thai learners: undergraduate students studying Japanese at Mahidol University. All were female, aged from 19-24 years old and reported having normal hearing. None had lived in Japan, while all had been studying Japanese for at least six months. They reported that they were able to read Hiragana. Three participants had passed the N5 level of the JLPT certification. However, two participants were removed from the study because they did not complete the tasks correctly. Each participant was paid 100 baht to participate in the pilot study.

Procedure

This section will outline the design and structure of the Nihongo Speech Trainer. Seven Japanese native speakers produced 75 minimal pairs of the target contrasts (11 contrasts x 2 minimal pairs x 75 tokens = 1,650 items). The pre/post-test stimuli were produced by a female Japanese speaker (11 contrasts x 20 tokens = 220 items). The recording was carried out in a soundproof recording room with a high-quality recorder at the Faculty of Liberal Arts of Mahidol University. The settings of the recorder were set so that recording was conducted using a 32-bit mono channel and a sampling frequency of 44.1 kHz. The stimuli were presented via Microsoft Power Point, one by one in a randomized order. Regarding the procedure, all participants were given a username and a password to log on to their account on the application webpage. They were asked to perform the training individually and given instructions through "Line", a freeware application used for instant messaging produced by Line Corporation. The training was structured as follows:

Introducing the training to the participants. Nihongo Speech Trainer was self-paced and completed outside of class time. Users were given a username and password with which to log in to their own account. Simple instructions of how to use the website in Thai and English were given on the "Home" page. Participants were presented with a list of 11 phonemic contrasts on the page (/ts, z, tɕ, ɕ, (d)ʑ, d, b, g, long-short vowel, geminate consonant and diphthong/). They could choose the contrast that best suited their needs and interest – hence the training content differed for each participant, since their problems varied in content and number – which added an extra independent variable that was not controlled for (See Figure 1.).

Pre/post-test. After the participants chose their problematic contrast to train on the main page, they were given a pre-test, the training itself and then a post-test. The pre/post-test were conducted in order to measure and compare possible improvements in perception and production ability. The post-test and the pre-test were identical. There were 20 words with at least two choices to select for each contrast. There was no feedback provided in this section. After users finished the pre-test phase they were then subsequently directed to the training phase.

Training. In each training session, participants completed a two forced-choice identification task (e.g., "Is the word you hear 'あすま /asuma/' or 'あずま /azuma/'?"). The sounds used in the training were produced by seven different speakers. The order was randomly chosen by the application's software. Target sounds were provided in a wide variety of phonetic environments (e.g., [a], [i], [o]) situated in various word locations (e.g., initial, medial and final) and word types (nonsense and real words). Moreover, there were three choices of stimuli quantity in the training of this study to see the effect of stimuli volume (45, 60 or 75 tokens). The quantity and length of the training varied according to the participants' training performance, varying from 10 minutes to 15 minutes for each contrast. In the training phase, participants were asked to press the "play" button to listen to the item and that item was then played twice automatically. Participants identified the sounds and were given immediate feedback regarding the correct answer after each attempt. If the identification of the target segment was correct, participants could listen to the next trial, but if they identified the contrast incorrectly, a message was then displayed, and they could listen to the correct and the incorrect stimulus again until they managed to choose the correct sound. Moreover, the participants were also asked whether they wanted further training for the tokens they misperceived. After they finished the training, they were then given the post-test to measure whether or not an improvement had occurred subsequent to the training.

Questionnaire. After the post-test, the participants were then directed to a Google form to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire aimed to gather more insightful data from the participants.

Results and Discussion

Training efficacy

Participants' pre-test and post-test scores in each contrast were compared in order to examine whether the training facilitated improvements in the participants' perceptual skills in identifying trained contrasts. Table 1 displays the number of training sessions which occurred. Figure 3 illustrates participants' pre-test and post-test identification accuracy scores for each contrast. According to Figure 3, there was no attempt at training /d/ and [(d)ʑ] made by any participant. Positive gains were observed in /z/, /ts/, /tɕ/ /g/ and sokuon. Negative gains were observed in /ɕ/ and the long-short vowel. No gain was observed in /b/ and yoon.

Participants used the "Nihongo Speech Trainer" to train with an average number of 2 contrasts per person.

The pilot study has shown that the training was effective in enhancing the participants' ability to perceptually identify the target contrast in specific contrasts. Nevertheless, the results cannot be said to be generalisable since the number of participants was not big enough to run any statistical analysis. To assess the effectiveness of the training, a higher number of participants would be needed.

Regarding the volume of the training, through 19 attempts 45 tokens were chosen to train with, while three other participants chose to train with 75 tokens.

Table 1
Number of training (N)

Contrast	Numbers of training
/ts/	5
/z/	4
/ɕ/	4
Long-short vowel	4
Yoon	2
/tɕ/	1
/b/	1
/g/	1
Sokuon	1
/ʑ/	0
/d/	0
Total	23

Training contents

According to the questionnaire results, some participants reported that they expected to receive more tips and suggestions on how to learn the contrast, and the characteristics of the contrast they were trained in, such as through a tutorial video.

Some participants reported that being exposed to only listening practices made them feel uncomfortable. They also said that they still wanted to rely more on their teachers' instructions.

Tool system

Some functions were not easy to understand, such as the right or wrong symbols. More visual aids need to be used.

The system sometimes ran slowly. Some participants reported problems with the host connection.

Many participants expressed a desire to use the website on their smartphone.

Two of the participants dropped out because they did not perform the post-test.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire survey was conducted among 15 participants to gauge the effectiveness of the Nihongo Speech Trainer, and to get comments and suggestions from the participants. The survey was carried out through Google Form (See details of the questionnaire in Appendix A).

All of the participants believed that their listening skills improved after using the Nihongo Speech Trainer.

13 out of 15 (87%) reported that the Nihongo Speech Trainer was useful and interesting.

50% thought that the Nihongo Speech Trainer was useful in improving their listening skills and 47% thought that the Nihongo Speech Trainer was useful in improving both speaking and listening skills. 3% thought that the Nihongo Speech Trainer was not useful in helping learn both skills in Japanese.

77% reported that basic explanation of the phonetic characteristics of each contrast might be useful in learning new sounds and it would help the website to be more entertaining. To be specific, they suggested a video allowing basic knowledge of the sound properties and some tips for how to learn the contrast. Moreover, 17.6% suggested that the presentation of articulation might help understand the articulation process.

89% suggested that the Japanese design of the website would help motivate the learners more. They also reported that some symbols were difficult to understand, such as the right or wrong symbols.

94% agreed that the self-paced style fit will with their learning needs because they could get access to repetitive practice sessions and practice at their own pace.

76.5% reported that the length of the training is moderate – not too long or too short. 12% thought that the length was too long. And another 12% thought that the training was too short.

They also showed a demand for training in Japanese prosody and pitch-accent (10 out of 15, 71%).

78% of the participants were satisfied with the system's stability and operability. Four participants reported that problems occurred while doing the training.

In summary, the questionnaire showed a high degree of satisfaction among the participants. It seems that they considered the Nihongo Speech Trainer to be useful and viable as a tool for teaching Japanese pronunciation for Thai learners in improving their perception ability. However, there are things to be taken into consideration to enhance the effectiveness of the tool.

Application of the outcomes of pilot study

The results from the pilot study showed that the Nihongo Speech Trainer was able to raise the learners' awareness in learning Japanese contrasts and was useful in improving their identification ability in the contrasts trained. The results of the pilot study gave insightful suggestions that were beneficial for the main study design. However, to motivate and guide the participants towards a meaningful goal, some points need to be adjusted, as described below in Table 2.

Conclusion

This paper has described the design and development of the Nihongo Speech Trainer as well as reporting the pilot study's results. The results showed that the tool fostered improvements in the learners' perception ability and the questionnaire also revealed that they considered this tool to be useful for educational purposes. However, there are some points to be considered. The main limitation concerns the number of participants. Although the results here make a contribution to the study of perceptual training, they cannot be generalised as the study was carried out with only fifteen participants. However, it would not be difficult to collect data from a larger sample

Table 2
Practical considerations and directions for the main study

Pilot study	Main study
Efficacy The participants tested the training system. However, the effectiveness of the system was not sufficiently observable since the number of participants was too small.	➢ To investigate whether a significant improvement has occurred after the training, the main study will be conducted on a larger number of participants aiming at approximately 70 participants.
Training content Perceptual training using a two-alternative forced choice identification task was used alone in the training. However, that perceptual training itself seems to have been relatively demotivating since there was no interaction given to the participants.	➢ Based on the questionnaire and the interview, they reported that the role of the instructor is essential for learners to learn the target sounds. Hence, to maximize the effect of the training, the production of a video tutorial focusing on perception and production techniques as well as the perceptual training will be employed in the main study. Teachers should not expect that technology can solve all the students' learning problems and can replace them. There are limitations to what any tool can do and how it can be used. Instead, they should pay attention to the different roles assigned to technology and other kinds of mediation. If teachers can introduce various mediating tools to their students to facilitate their learning at different learning stages, they will be able to assist them to move to the next advanced learning stage (Derwing & Munro, 2015; Pirani, 2004; Pi-Hua, 2015; Yoshida, 2018). Hence, it is strongly hoped that the additional tutorial video guiding the students through the sound principles of phonology and phonetics will contribute to the efficacy of the training.
Tool system A few participants (22%) reported that they were not satisfied with the system's stability and operability.	➢ The main study will improve weaknesses in the pilot study such as the system's stability and operability to have a better connection. ➢ It will focus on presenting Japanese styles on the website to motivate learners by using Japanese characters, backgrounds and signs. ➢ For the main study, the website will be redesigned, especially the design of the website and elements such as the timer and other functions (pictographs etc.). Some buttons also need to be redesigned to help participants understand the meaning ("Next", "Play", "Start" etc.).

in the main study. A further limitation concerns the system connectivity. We would work on the improvement of system performance for the purposes of the main study to ensure it works reliably. Moreover, the audio sounds and other designs will be modified so that they are of a smaller file size thereby enabling better fluidity of use.

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APPENDIX

1. **What do you think of Nihongo Speech Trainer?**
   a. fun b. not fun c. boring d. long e. useful

2. **Do you think Nihongo Speech Trainer helped you improve the perception and production ability of the Japanese sounds?**
   a. not at all b. help listening skill c. help speaking skill d. help improving both skills

3. **What function do you think would help enhance the effectiveness of the Nihongo Speech Trainer?**
   a. perceptual training b. basic explanation of the phonetic characteristics c. articulatory diagrams

4. **Do you think the Japanese design of the website would help motivate learning and concentrating?**
   a. Yes b. No

5. **What do you think of the self-paced style of learning used in the Nihongo Speech Trainer?**
   a. Good b. Not good

6. **Do you have any specific contrast you want to train on apart from the sounds used in Nihongo Speech Trainer?**
   a. Pitch accent b. Intonation c. Vowels d. Other consonants e. Others please specify

7. **What do you think about the time length of the training?**
   a. short b. moderate c. long

Figures

Figure 1. Screenshot of Nihongo Speech Trainer: Target contrasts

Figure 2. Screenshot of Nihongo Speech Trainer: Two forced-choice identification task.

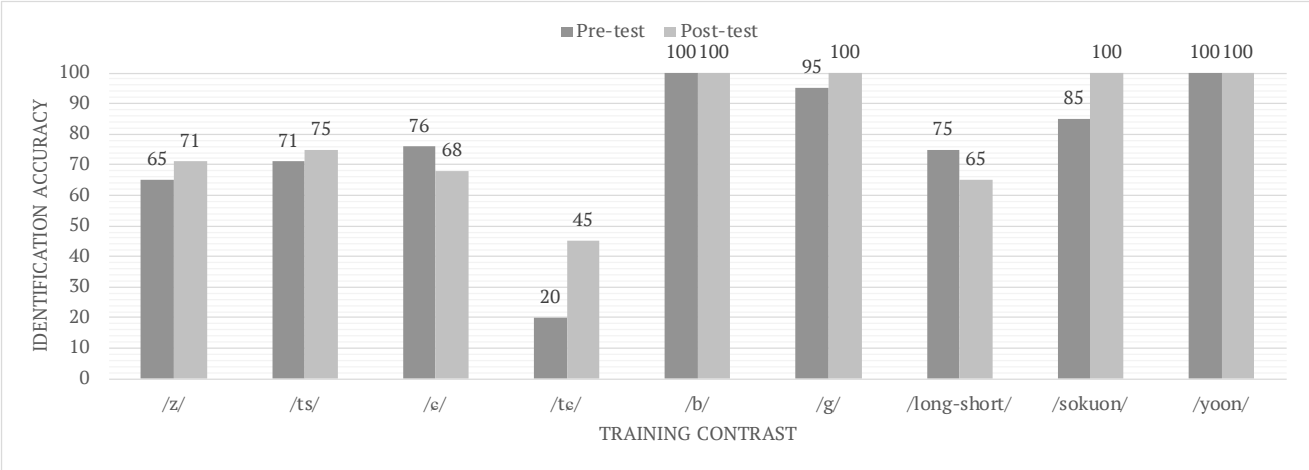

Figure 3. Mean percentage of correct identification scores in Japanese contrasts by participants.

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Positive Psychology and Mastery of the L2 Academic Self

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In order to determine how best to prepare students for university and to participate meaningfully in the activities of their intended academic discourse community (ADC), the influential model proposed by Anne Beaufort in 2007 suggests that this can only occur once a learner has mastered the domains of knowledge pertaining to the target ADC, including those of subject matter, genre, rhetorical techniques and the writing process. However, this article will argue that mastery of a domain and entry into an ADC involves more than this; both of these things can occur only once a student has been able to 'master' him/herself. In order to address the question of the nature of 'self-mastery' and how to guide students towards achieving it, this article draws upon theories from the emerging field of positive psychology, showing how notions such as self-efficacy, mindfulness and flow can be interwoven with concepts more commonly associated with English for Academic Purposes or 'EAP' (e.g. learner autonomy, motivation and noticing) to provide insights into how mastery of the second/additional language learning (L2) academic self can be facilitated. The application of these proposed strategies in the classroom is intended to give students the tools to not only to enter their chosen ADC but also to leave their mark on it.

Keywords: EAP, Positive psychology, discourse community, self-mastery, academic identity

Introduction

> *Identity is what makes us similar to and different from each other and for academics it is how they both achieve credibility as insiders and reputations as individuals.*
> *(Hyland, 2015, p. 36)*

Though studying is frequently depicted as a cerebral activity of the self, conducted predominantly in isolation, all university students have some form of relationship with the community of researchers, practitioners and students associated with their discipline (Adams, 2014). In fact, their academic identity can be seen to be defined in terms of their 'proximity' or position in relation to this community (Hyland, 2015, p. 33), regardless of whether English is their first language (L1) or an additional language (L2), and of whether they are already studying on their university course or are on an EAP pathway.

However, despite the importance of such a community to a student's identity, the exact nature of this concept has been heavily disputed; some term it an 'academic discourse community' (e.g. Swales, 2016) and others a 'community of practice' (e.g. Lave & Wenger, 1991), with both terms carrying different nuances of meaning. The term 'academic discourse community' was coined first and, though initially criticised for its 'fuzziness' (hence the advent of the 'community of practice' concept), it has since been usefully subdivided into 'local', 'focal' and 'folocal' discourse communities (Swales, 2016, pp. 4-7). All three of these types of discourse community tend to consist of individuals who use shared language and genres to participate in discursive practices with a good degree of common purpose and focus (Swales, 2016), with members of the former being more likely to be locally situated (such as in a university department), and members of the second more likely to be removed from each other spatially, temporally and linguistically but partaking in the same largely textual discursive practices (such as writing a thesis or journal article). The term 'folocal' is a fusion of the other two terms, reflecting the activities of those who are members of both local and focal discourse communities, such as research-active

university lecturers (Swales, 2016, p. 6). In this way, the term 'academic discourse community' can be used to encapsulate two important (and often overlapping) dimensions of participation which can usefully be applied to university students - both the localised and the focal/textual - and it is in both of these respects that the term 'academic discourse community' (ADC) will be employed in this paper.

One way of characterising the relationship of a student to their intended ADC is to view it in terms of shifts in identity and perceived levels of agency, and the interrelationship between the two. Agency can be regarded as a relational property of the nature of the association between an individual and the ADC (Oxford, 2016, p. 64) at the interface of which is a 'site of struggle', which is where complex and shifting perceptions of our identity and level of agency in relation to others in the ADC are formed (Hemmi, 2014, pp. 77-78). As a student embarks on a process of transition into their target ADC, the power relationship between these two entities shifts – and this shift can be lengthy, complex and even painful (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Swales, 2016). This of necessity has an impact on a student's notion of their own academic identity or position in relation to their ADC.

In terms of how notions of academic identity might be theorised, this has been done most notably through Marsh and colleagues' model of an 'academic self-concept' or 'ASC' (Marsh et al, 2008). They use the term ASC to refer to "students' self-perceptions of their academic accomplishments, their academic competence, their expectations of academic success or failure, and academic self-beliefs" (Marsh et al, 2008, p. 322). ASC can be general in scope, or can be domain-specific, with differences depending on an individual's perception of their abilities in different subjects (Marsh et al, 2008, p. 322). At this domain-specific level, ASC has been closely linked to the construct of academic self-efficacy, which refers to an individual's beliefs that they have the agency required to succeed in a specific academic task at a designated level (Schunk, 1991); indeed academic self-efficacy is commonly regarded to be the most significant component in one's ASC (e.g. Schunk, 1991). In recognition of the important interplay between ASC and academic self-efficacy, in this article I shall refer to the student's perceptions about their academic competence and their level of agency in specific academic tasks as their 'academic self'.

However, it is important to note that the aforementioned shifts in positioning of the 'academic self' in relation to the intended ADC tend to have an even greater impact on students for whom the language and practices of their target ADC are not those with which they are most familiar (and who may therefore enter onto an EAP pathway), as learning an L2 has been found to prompt further shifts in one's self-concept (Yeung & Wong, 2004). In the case of these L2 students, their transition involves what I term their 'L2 academic self', which can face greater challenges in this process than a student typically would studying in their first language (Spack, 1988). One additional challenge is that many international students, particularly those for whom English is not an L1, are frequently subject to 'othering discourses' (Sidhu, 2006, p. 175), which frame them in terms of their skills deficits. Indeed, there is a "great potential for L2 students to internalize reductive stigma", which can lower their levels of self-efficacy (Gallagher, Galindo & Shin, 2016, pp. 3-4), which, in turn, can put them at higher risk of academic under-achievement (de Kleine & Lawton, 2015).

This article will proceed to explore the nature of these challenges by outlining the process by which the 'L2 academic self' enters an ADC. It will make a case for the centrality of psychological factors related to identity and agency in this process of academic socialization, thus opening up space for the application to EAP of theories and approaches from the emerging field of positive psychology, including Albert Bandura's concept of 'self-efficacy' from his Social Cognitive Theory, Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi's Flow Theory, Martin Seligman's Theory of Learned Optimism, Ellen Langer's Theory of Mindful Learning and Barbara Fredrickson's Broaden and Build Theory of Positive Emotions. It will examine what insights these theories and approaches have to offer with regard to EAP students overcoming the challenges outlined above, and will argue that there is a great deal to be gained from exploring this hitherto largely uncharted territory.

From Emerging to Established L2 Academic Self

At the outset, the power relationship between a student and their intended ADC is essentially unbalanced. This has been referred to in terms of a dichotomy between the 'novice' status of the student and the 'expert' status of the more influential members of the ADC (Swales, 1990, p. 27). Some commentators offer an interesting analogy to explain the process of transition from 'novice' to 'expert' status: 'novice' students must undergo something akin to tribal initiation practices (Swales, 1990, p. 4) before they can hope to be accepted by the 'gatekeepers to

the domain' (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997, p. 28) and to be successful in fully 'joining the tribe' (Alexander, Argent, & Spencer, 2008) of the target ADC. This imagery contains some conceptually potent elements through its likening of this process with that of the convergence of an individual with the norms and practices of a powerful, closed group, practices which, while being important rites of passage, are notoriously arduous and painful, often leaving enduring marks on an individual, both physical and psychological. However, in other respects, the terminology 'novice', 'expert' and 'initiation' is somewhat problematic, tending to frame an individual's relationship to an ADC in stative terms, and assigning undue import to a single transitional event (such as the conferral of a degree) between these as being conducive to changing one's status.

More helpful are analogies which frame the transition of a student into an ADC in terms of a longer-term process of 'academic socialisation' (Coffin & Donohue, 2012, p. 72) or 'cognitive apprenticeship' (Adams, 2014, p. 24). The implication here is that students are already members of their ADC and that their relationship to other members of the community can be regarded not as stative but as dynamic and developmental, and not so much in terms of status as of positioning in relation to others at a given point in time. For this reason, I intend to adopt these developmental analogies as the foundation for my discussion, and, to enable me to refer to L2 students who are positioned at different points along the developmental continuum, I propose to employ the terms 'emerging L2 academic self' and 'established L2 academic self' in this article.

The 'emerging L2 academic self' initially adopts a relatively peripheral position in relation to the rest of the ADC, gradually moving to a more central or established position in the community (Lave & Wenger, 1991). According to Beaufort (2007), this transition can only commence once a student has begun to 'master' five specific domains of knowledge: that of the target discourse community, which requires an analysis of the characteristics and values of the intended audience; its subject matter, which involves critical and analytical engagement with the disciplinary content (Beaufort, 2012); its genre conventions, which range 'from structure and paragraphing to tone and mechanics' (p. 180); its rhetoric, including an ability to identify the distinct communicative purpose of a particular piece of writing and to employ rhetorical devices accordingly (Beaufort, 2012); and the writing process, for which students should take a flexible approach, drawing on a range of strategies. For L2 students, I also propose a sixth domain - that of 'academic L2 competence' – which affects their ability to master the other five domains. The notable point here is that the 'emerging L2 academic self' is required to converge with the norms and practices of the ADC, a process of 'constructing individuals as members' referred to by Hyland (2015, p. 36) as 'proximity'.

However, once an individual has moved to a more central position in their ADC through mastering the relevant knowledge domains, an important shift in power relations and identity can occur, one which identifies the individual as having fashioned an 'established L2 academic self'. Such an individual, according to the school of Systemic Functional Linguistics, will have a keen awareness of how 'powerful discourses' are constructed, which can empower them to "critique from within and renegotiate their position" (Coffin & Donohue, 2012, p. 72). This renegotiation process can feed into what Hyland (2015, p. 33) has referred to as 'positioning', in which the informed choices that individuals make about genre grant them a certain degree of individuality or, as he puts it, 'personal wriggle room'. Csikszentmihalyi (1997) echoes this sentiment, arguing that mastery of a domain is a necessary prerequisite to the ability of an individual to be creative and influence a domain from within.

Therefore, it can be seen that, while the 'emerging L2 academic self' is engaged in an unequal power relationship with the target ADC, involving the convergence of one's identity with the norms and expectations of the target group, the 'established L2 academic self' has a far more reciprocal relationship with the target ADC, allotting the individual a degree of power to actually change the group, along with its attendant knowledge domains, from within.

The Roles of Self-Efficacy, Mastery Experiences and Flow

Yet, crucially, the journey of an individual from 'emerging' to 'established L2 academic self', and the likelihood of their being able to flourish in their chosen ADC, is dependent on more than merely gaining the skills to master the required knowledge domains (including the academic L2). There is evidence to suggest that whether or not a student achieves success in this challenging endeavour hinges also on the strength of their belief that they are capable of succeeding in this feat or, put another way, their level of 'self-efficacy' (e.g. Adams, 2014, p. 17).

This concept of 'self-efficacy' is a major tenet of Albert Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory of psychology (Bandura, 1989, p. 731), in which he proposes that people with high levels of self-efficacy are highly goal-focused and perseverant in the pursuit even of difficult tasks. They imagine themselves succeeding and apply themselves more fully to achieving their desired end than their low self-efficacy counterparts, which in turn renders them more likely to succeed. For example, in the field of L2 learning, Hsieh and Schallert (2008) showed that L2 learners with higher self-efficacy beliefs tended to perform better in the L2 than do L2 learners with lower self-efficacy beliefs. These trends appear to be supported by findings that, in the L2 classroom, learners with higher levels of self-efficacy are more likely to be found in advanced level classes (Mills, 2014).

It can be argued, though, that it is difficult to establish a precise causal relationship here in order to determine conclusively whether it is high self-efficacy beliefs that lead to high achievement, or whether the reverse is actually more accurate. In fact, the answer to this potential criticism lies within Bandura's theory itself; there is a symbiotic relationship between the two. Just as a degree of self-efficacy gives one the motivation to put in the required effort to succeed in a task, success in a task – referred to by Bandura (1989, p. 733) as a 'mastery experience' – is one of the factors which can serve to raise one's level of self-efficacy. This may, in turn, lead to the student attempting more and more challenging tasks, thereby leading to the development of increasingly complex skills.

This premise is also a fundamental feature of Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) Theory of Flow, which complements Bandura's theory by incorporating the concepts of motivation and enjoyment. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) has proposed that one way of increasing the likelihood of success in a task is for individuals to experience the state of 'flow', which is an optimal mental state in which an individual is absolutely engrossed in a particular activity whilst experiencing a deep sense of enjoyment. There is evidence to suggest that students experiencing flow whilst engaged in a task have higher levels of motivation and focus, and are thus more likely to persevere to complete the task successfully (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Each success leads to the setting of increasingly complex goals, which, in turn, leads to the development of more complex skills, as Csikszentmihalyi outlines in his Growth of Complexity Through Flow Theory (2003).

In the EAP classroom, the teacher might make it more likely that learners will experience flow and success in challenging learning activities (thereby increasing their self-efficacy) by creating certain enabling conditions. There needs to be a fair balance between the level of challenge posed and the skills and abilities of the individual to meet that challenge, otherwise students may become demotivated and give up. For example, a tutor may choose to avoid the possibility of overwhelming and demotivating intermediate level EAP students by taking the decision to simplify or shorten an authentic academic text and/or the activities that accompany it in order to increase the likelihood of the task being completed successfully. This can be linked to the pedagogical concept of 'scaffolding', which involves providing a student with supportive mechanisms that are gradually removed as their skills improve. This has been found to be of great benefit in facilitating deeper engagement in EAP students (e.g. Wingate, 2019). Flow is also more likely to occur if the task is intrinsically interesting to students (e.g., if it can be linked to their future academic studies) and if they are able to enjoy a sense of control over the process through the goals of a task being clear and having the opportunity to receive immediate feedback on their progress so that, if their performance falters, they can adjust it accordingly to achieve better results (Csikszentmihalyi, 2003). In terms of how flow might be facilitated in language learning tasks, Aubrey (2017) has found that information-exchange activities, which include a decision-making component and a degree of novelty and complexity, can provide students with a clear and engaging communicative purpose, while enjoying a significant degree of control over the content of their message, which was found to promote flow experiences in students. However, though certain tasks and contextual variables may promote flow, individual learner characteristics should also be borne in mind in order to increase the probability that flow will occur and that successful learning will take place.

Setbacks and Learned Optimism

Nonetheless, sooner or later, all students will experience some form of setback and, for students with low self-efficacy, should their performance falter or should they experience another form of setback, the likelihood of attempting the task again is far lower; indeed, those with lower self-efficacy levels are more likely to choose to either over-simplify the task to increase the likelihood of success or to quit (Bandura, 1997). Therefore, it can be seen that it is not enough for teachers to merely try to create the enabling conditions for flow to occur; they

also need to have strategies at hand which will encourage students to persevere when they encounter obstacles. This is where the theory of Learned Optimism comes into play.

Learned Optimism (Seligman, 1991), or 'LO', is a theory which proposes that there are two diametrically-opposed ways in which people react to experiences of personal failure; they might use a pessimistic explanatory style or an optimistic one. If they use a pessimistic style, they are likely to view the cause of the failure as being permanent, pervading all domains of their life and being due to internal factors which cannot be changed. People who explain their failures in this way are more likely to feel that they are not able to control their situation, to suffer poor health and depression, to give up and to fail in pursuit of their goal, thereby rendering their prediction that they will fail self-fulfilling (Seligman, 1991). In other words, the concept of pessimistic explanatory style is very similar to that of low-self efficacy in terms of a person's negative thought processes, feelings, behaviour and ultimately lower chances of succeeding in a given task.

On the other hand, those who use an optimistic explanatory style are more likely to see a failure as temporary and therefore rectifiable, bound to a limited domain of their life and due to external causes. They are more likely to feel in control of their situation, to enjoy higher levels of health and happiness, to be inspirational role models to others, and to persevere at a given task, giving them a better chance of succeeding in it (Seligman, 1991). There are clear parallels here to the concept of high self-efficacy, which has been linked to one's ability to control one's affective states, which can have significant repercussions on one's likelihood of succeeding (Bandura, 1997).

However, as Bandura (1989, p. 732) cautions, "gross miscalculation of one's efficacy can get one into trouble", which echoes Seligman's warning that, despite the potentially detrimental self-limiting effects of pessimism, in some situations (such as those in which the stakes are high), pessimism can be the more prudent or 'realistic' explanatory style to adopt (Seligman, 1991, p. 209). Equally, while 'optimistic self-appraisals' which are not too far removed from the realms of the possible can be beneficial in encouraging an individual to persevere, these can be risky in high-stakes situations and can sometimes lead to individuals evading responsibility for their own failures (Seligman, 1991, p. 209). Therefore, Seligman (1991, p. 291-292) proposed the use of 'flexible optimism', in which individuals become aware that they can choose the way in which they respond to failure and negative events, depending on which strategy is appropriate for use in a given situation.

In terms of how the theory of Learned Optimism can be used in the EAP classroom, students can be helped to see perceived setbacks (such as language or cohesion problems in an assignment) in an 'optimistic' way, which can enable them to see failure and mistakes as non-threatening and even constructive, thus encouraging more risk-taking and perseverance (Seligman, 1991, p. 104). This relates to Bandura's (1989, p. 733) suggested strategy of 'social persuasion' through which a teacher or respected other can bolster a student's belief that they are capable of succeeding in a given task. Another implication of LO for the classroom is that the provision of inspirational role models can put forward the idea that adversity can be overcome through perseverance, which relates to Bandura's (1997) recommended use of vicarious experiences through which seeing others succeed can increase one's belief that one can also succeed. This might come about through reading and analysing a biography of an inspirational figure such as Mahatma Gandhi in class, or even, as suggested by Murphey and Arao (2001, p. 1), through reading the reflective accounts of successful learners from previous cohorts, functioning as 'near-peer' role models. A further application of LO to the classroom is the importance of learners feeling a sense of autonomy or agency, perhaps through the conscious use of metacognitive strategies (such as the reflective cycle) when failure occurs. This would serve as an extension to existing opportunities to practice reflection which are already common on many EAP programmes, such as at the University of Nottingham in the UK (Veleanu, & Gooch, 2017). Strategies such as these are more likely to lead to success in an endeavour or, as Bandura (1989, p. 733) puts it, 'mastery experiences', which, as noted above, can increase students' skills levels and levels of self-efficacy.

I have shown how using strategies offered by LO can give students ways in which they can build resilience in the face of potential adversity and, therefore, the motivation to persevere in the development of their skills. I will now move on to explore another form of resilience which we can help students develop - that of being comfortable with uncertainty and possessing flexible skills which are transferable to new contexts. For this, I will turn to the theory of Mindful Learning.

Mindfulness, Creativity and Play

Also known as 'Langerian Mindfulness', the notion of Mindful Learning, proposed by Langer (1997) is best explained by contrasting it with that of 'mindless' learning. According to Langer (2000, p. 220), 'mindless' learning depends heavily on rules which are typically learnt by rote and repetition with little understanding, otherwise known as 'over-learning'. In contrast, mindful learning occurs when a person experiences "a flexible state of mind in which we are actively engaged in the present, noticing new things and sensitive to context" (Langer, 2000, p. 220).

One way in which 'mindless learning' occurs is when information is presented prescriptively and learners make 'premature cognitive commitments' to that way of viewing it (Langer, 1997, p. 89). This type of learning has been found to be not easily adaptable to future contexts when new information comes to light which might challenge the original view (Langer & Piper, 1987). An example of this related to language learning might be the learning of a word through a bilingual dictionary, which tends to over-emphasise a 1:1 correspondence between equivalents (Adamska-Salaciak, 2013). However, while these words might be near-equivalents in one context, this might not be the case in another. Therefore, a student who has memorised this 1:1 correspondence 'mindlessly' might be more likely to misapply this word in inappropriate situations in the future, rather than noticing that this word is not usually used in those contexts.

A more 'mindful' approach to this might involve the use of concordance lines to encourage the students to actively notice the ways in which a word is used not only in terms of grammar and collocation but also in terms of contexts of use, as suggested by Meyer (2004, p. 11-12), an approach which readily lends itself to analysing discipline-specific usage in English for Specific Academic Purposes texts. Such descriptive rather than prescriptive approaches to presenting information have been found to help students become more receptive to alternative possibilities, leading to students being more open-minded and flexible and able to remember information better (Langer, 2000). It can also foster a less absolute and more "conditional or probabilistic view of the world" (Langer & Piper, 1987, p. 281), which has been associated with greater levels of creativity and flexible modes of thought (Langer & Piper, 1987), which lends itself well to academic contexts.

Despite the advantages of conditional modes of learning, there is some resistance to this idea. Many people are more comfortable with the idea of certainties and absolutes than with uncertainties and partial truths, a fact which is reflected in many teaching methodologies (Langer & Piper, 1987), especially for lower-level learners. However, developing a willingness to tolerate a degree of uncertainty and risk is one of the key components to becoming an autonomous learner (Alexander, Argent, & Spencer, 2008) and therefore to succeeding in one's chosen discourse community. Whether building in uncertainties is a viable option on every occasion is debatable, and there is some suggestion that, in situations which are not changeable, 'mindless' responses might have the advantage of being executed more quickly (Langer & Piper, 1987, p. 285).

Another important element of mindful learning is the promotion of a sense of playfulness and curiosity in a Another important element of mindful learning is the promotion of a sense of playfulness and curiosity in a student. Though not generally employed in discussions of EAP pedagogies, 'play' can perform a very important function in preparing students for adopting a more central role in their ADC. It tends to naturally encourage people to actively draw distinctions and notice interesting and relevant aspects of the activity they are engaged in (Langer, 1997, p. 56). This relates to the concept of 'noticing', based on Schmidt's (1990) Noticing Hypothesis, which proposes that input can only truly become intake when a language item is noticed consciously. Langer (1997) would add that the technique of noticing can be optimised when students are encouraged to vary the target of their attention; this has been found to lead them to focus better on this, to be able to remember more about it and even to like it better than before.

Furthermore, when an activity is perceived as 'play' rather than 'work', people have been found to show higher levels of mindful focus and engagement, which ultimately leads to more effective learning (Langer, 1997, p. 55). Indeed engagement, curiosity and play have all been linked to creativity (Seligman, 2011) or 'creating', which is the highest-order thinking skill in the revised version of Bloom's (1956) influential Taxonomy (Anderson et al., 2001), as it is often through letting one's mind roam playfully that new ideas and new relationships between concepts are formed (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). As is implicit in the concept of Bloom's Taxonomy, though, before an individual can be truly creative, s/he needs a good foundation of knowledge and understanding of

the discipline, which renders it more likely that an individual's creativity will be recognised by and, begin to influence, the target ADC (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). Indeed, Hyland (2015, p. 36) purports that we need to use "ways that are familiar to those we are trying to convince" in order to make an original contribution to our ADCs, thereby establishing our academic reputations. This echoes the idea that both creativity and the pre-requisite foundations of lower-order cognitive skills are therefore conducive to individuals being able to move into a more central and influential position in their ADC, thereby adopting a more 'established L2 academic self'.

In terms of how teachers can create the enabling conditions for creativity to flourish in the language classroom, Stevick (1980) advises that learners need to feel secure enough in the learning space to feel able to take risks, which can lead to greater progress in the L2. Indeed, fear of ridicule has been linked to higher levels of anxiety and, more specifically to the language learning context, Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA), which, in turn, can reduce students' willingness to communicate and be creative (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2016). Therefore, a supportive learning environment in which students are encouraged to take risks, help each other and view mistakes constructively is of great benefit in the L2 classroom.

Furthermore, Seligman, Ernst, Gillham, Reivich & Linkins (2009) add that creativity and analytical skills can be enhanced by positive mood. This can be explained by Fredrickson's Broaden and Build Theory of Positive Emotions (2001), which purports that when we experience positive emotions, this broadens the way in which we view the world, which opens us up to new experiences and learning, allowing us to take risks and build resources and resilience for the future. In contrast, experiencing negative emotions can prompt people to shut out the opportunities afforded by their situations and restrict their responses to survival behaviours, which limits opportunities for learning and risk-taking behaviours. Therefore, there is a strong case to be made for fostering a positive mindset in the EAP classroom.

Conclusion

> *The timeless message of research on self-efficacy is that confidence, effort and persistence are more potent than innate ability*
>
> *(Maddux, 2009, p. 341)*

This article has explored how this empowering principle from the field of positive psychology is relevant to the identity-transforming process of moving from an 'emerging' to 'established' position in relation to one's target ADC. This journey of the 'L2 academic self' involves the development of a proficiency in the L2 as well as a mastery of the knowledge domains of the intended ADC before an individual can move to a more central position in the ADC through exercising the agency and creativity required to influence it from within. As with any process of transformation, an element of uncertainty and risk of failure is present, which requires a healthy degree of resilience and self-efficacy in order to cope. This article has explored how these can be bolstered through a number of strategies advocated in positive psychology, including: mastery experiences, flow, a flexibly optimistic explanatory style, verbal persuasion, positive vicarious experiences, mindful learning, conditional presentation of concepts, noticing, playfulness, a supportive learning environment, positive mood and creativity. While some of these ideas, such as the concept of noticing, are not new to EAP, others which have not commonly been associated with EAP, such as creativity and playfulness, gain a new measure of prominence by analysing the journey of the 'L2 academic self' towards the centre of the intended ADC through the lens of the emerging field of positive psychology.

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Teaching Business English with TED Talks: Putting Ideas into Practice

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TED.com is used in teaching EFL to enhance exposure to English, to promote authentic vocabulary and to develop multiple foreign language skills. For university students studying business as their major and English for professional communication as a part of their university curriculum, TED talks provide a cutting-edge business context, which aims to increase the learners' English language proficiency, develop the learners' professional competencies and expand their outlook by acquainting them with business practices from around the world. Through authentic models of effective communication, students build fluency to achieve academic and personal success. *Business English with TED talks*, an EFL resource book, is the result of the author's approach to creating educational materials based on authentic and up to date video content. Using the example of 'Business English with TED talks', this paper describes criteria for selecting TED talks for different groups of students, the structure of a TED talk lesson and provides teachers with other resources for supplementing TED talk lessons.

Keywords: TED talks, business English, authentic video, teaching materials, integrated skills

TED Talks as a Language Resource

With the development of the internet, audiovisual input is accessible almost everywhere. Today, teachers and students have access to a vast variety of online audiovisual resources, which bring the outside world into the classroom, provide authentic contexts in which English is used, expose students to different varieties and accents of English, and give supplementary listening practice.

One well-known resource is TED.com, which has become a worldwide phenomenon. It is a platform where the brightest minds – scientists, designers, researchers, company CEOs and inventors – go to spread their ideas. Many of these leaders deliver their insights at TED conferences around the world, which are then uploaded onto TED.com. The scope of topics is broad and the materials are of very high quality, free of charge and constantly updated. There are about 380 talks on business, which can be used to the benefit of university students studying business as their major and also English for professional communication as a part of their university curriculum.

We live in a rapidly changing world but course books still take several years to be published. By then, the ideas, vocabulary, and educational context contained in the chosen texts is outdated and, as a result, has much less validity. The internet can fill this gap if the course books are supplemented by online material.

Being a supporter of the idea of teaching English with TED talks and having a strong desire to contribute to the implementation of this idea in teaching practice, the author created customized lessons using TED talks to provide authentic cutting-edge business contexts in which English is used.

The educational resource book entitled, *Business English with TED talks*[1], is the result of the author's approach to creating educational materials based on authentic and up-to-date video recordings. It is a collection of ten lessons based on a selection of TED talks about business issues for university students whose level of proficiency in English is estimated as B2-C1, according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The resource book can be used both for classroom activities and for independent student work and may

[1] Stognieva, O. N. (2018). English for Business Studies in Higher Education (B2-C1). Moscow, Russia: Urait.

be of interest to ESP instructors and university teachers of English as a foreign language. This article describes criteria for selecting TED talks for different groups of students, the structure of a TED talk lesson and provides teachers with other resources for supplementing TED talk lessons.

First, a brief review of existing literature is presented, followed by approaches to the lesson design that have been implemented. The article will conclude with a discussion of potential values and limitations that might be identified when using TED talks and suggestions for future research.

The Benefits of TED Talks for EFL Teaching

Video is a multi-sensory medium that offers students more than listening comprehension; videos provide students with an opportunity to be engaged meaningfully in using the target language (Terantino, 2011). Hanley, Herron and Cole (1995) suggest that multiple clues (colors, shapes, movements, voice) help language learners understand a particular discourse as well as to improve their integrated language skills. Incorporating video as an educational resource in EFL teaching practice can enhance exposure to the English language, promote authentic vocabulary and develop the four integrated skills (Mekheimer, 2011).

Using TED talks enhances listening comprehension skills. Herron and Seay (1991) reported about the cognitive and affective benefits from using authentic video-based materials to improve listening comprehension at all levels of instruction with no negative effect on grammar, vocabulary or oral skills. The research conducted by Chung (2002), employing authentic video in the EFL Taiwanese college classroom under the condition of combined treatment of pre-teaching vocabulary and question previewing, confirmed that authentic video materials produced a positive effect on listening comprehension instruction. Asako's study (2013) examined how TED talks affected Japanese college students' listening skills, and explored strategies to tailor the activities for lower-proficiency students. The data analysis indicated improvement in their listening comprehension, a rise of their level of motivation, and an increase in the ability to understand different English accents. Kim (2015) investigated the effect of implementing authentic video resources for improving listening comprehension among Korean university students. The results demonstrated a significant improvement in listening comprehension among the intermediate and advanced proficiency groups after using the videos.

TED talks are also a valuable material in increasing the students' reading comprehension skills. The recent studies of Hayikaleng, Nair and Krishnasamy (2016), Torabian and Tajadini (2017), Metruk (2018) investigated the effects of using authentic videos on EFL reading comprehension among vocational and university students, which indicated a significant achievement in reading comprehension of the experimental group compared to the control group. Results suggested that authentic videos might be considered as an effective instructional tool for improving English reading comprehension and as an important teaching resource in English classrooms.

Using authentic video helps develop writing skills (Hanley, et al., 1995). They compared the effects of two visual advance organizers on the comprehension and retention of a written passage in a FLES (Foreign Language in the Elementary School) program: (a) video and (b) pictures + teacher narrative. Their findings indicated that video was a more effective advance organizer than the pictures + teacher narrative. They interpreted these results as evidence of video's potential to enhance comprehension and enrich instruction. Other studies highlighted the benefits of using different types of authentic video (expository, observational, interactive and reflective) for essay composition (Snow, 2012); for narrative text writing in terms of content, organization, vocabulary, grammar (Anggraini et al., 2014); for introducing cohesion and coherence writing practices to university students (Indrasari, 2010).

TED talks provide language learners with the opportunity to improve their speaking skills. Weyers (1999) studied the effect of using authentic videos for Spanish learners' speaking output. The performance on both listening comprehension and oral production of the experimental group that was exposed to watching a television show for 60 minutes per day for 8 weeks was significantly better than the control group that followed the regular curriculum without the video. Kurniawan (2016) stated that the implementation of using movies as a medium to teach speaking was effective to boost the Indonesian EFL learners' average score in speaking. Abdelkarim (2016) emphasized that the authentic videos give enough exposure of language use, prepare students for speaking practices and help them to increase their level of achievement in speaking. In summary, the studies have shown that using video to improve students' speaking ability is appropriate.

TED talks, accompanied by subtitles or transcripts, can help vocabulary learning. Canning-Wilson (2000) claims that images contextualized in video or on its own can help to reinforce the language, provided the learner could see immediate meaning in terms of vocabulary recognition in the first language. Although subtitles have sometimes been considered as distractors, nowadays the teacher should realize that "far from being a distraction and a source of laziness, subtitles might have a potential value in helping the learning acquisition process by providing learners with the key to massive quantities of authentic and comprehensible language input" (Vanderplank, 1988, p. 272-273). According to Talaván (2007), text in the form of bimodal subtitles (foreign language audio with foreign language subtitles) helps learners monitor a speech that would probably be lost otherwise. To use the subtitles efficiently, the instructor should teach students to use them as a support for learning new words, for better understanding, to fix spelling or any other functional purposes. The literature review indicates that using authentic video materials brings significant improvements to the whole language learning.

Teaching and Learning Materials for Business English

Business English is a broad term, which includes Englishes used by professionals and students in full-time education preparing for a business career. The teaching of business English, according to Brieger (1997), brings together three areas: the pedagogic skills involved in running training programs, knowledge of English and understanding the role of communication in a global business environment, and familiarity with the key business issues facing specific learners. Business English can be divided into English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP) for language learners who are already working in business, and English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) for pre-experience language learners from universities, colleges or trade and commerce schools who have no experience of the business world (Ellis & Johnson, 1994). This article reviews the teaching context of the second group – non-native pre-experience language learners. Dudley-Evans and John (2001) recommend published course book materials with input in text, audio and video format, which contains work on the traditional four skills as well as specific grammar and vocabulary development.

Many course books come as part of a package that includes comprehensive teacher's guides and resources, supplementary materials for students, self-study materials, audio and video resources. For pre-experienced groups, they may provide a window on to the business world. However, various limitations need to be considered when using published course books. Course books can quickly become outdated. Furthermore, the learners might have very specific requirements, depending on their cultural background and learning context. Important factors for them could include layout, structure, relevance, regular progress checks, up-to-date content, and authenticity. Price might also be a factor, depending on who is paying for the course (Frendo, 2005). That is why language practitioners should be aware of other types of teaching and learning materials for business English, such as job-specific materials, self-access materials, reference books, video materials, business simulation games, etc. (Sampath & Zalipour, 2009).

Frendo (2005) claims that there are three types of business English materials for teaching and learning: framework materials, authentic materials and tailor-made materials. Framework materials are "diagrammatic representations which can be used to generate language", for example, the frameworks to describe 4Ps and SWOT analysis. "Authentic material is any kind of material taken from the real world and not specifically created for the purpose of language teaching" (Ellis, 1994). There are various sources of authentic materials, such as newspapers, magazines, company specific materials, YouTube videos. Tailor-made materials refer to materials that are designed or produced by the teacher to meet the specific needs of their students.

For pre-experienced students combining tailor-made materials with authentic materials is an effective method in teaching, which also aims at producing an authentic business context in the classroom (Sampath & Zalipour, 2009). Business English instructors can select any authentic materials, for example TED talks, and adapt and tailor them to their students' needs and language proficiency level in order to produce relevant teaching aids.

TED.com provides 380 talks on business and their number is constantly increasing. However, few studies attempt to describe this educational resource as a tool for teaching business English. In recent studies, TED talks are mostly described in connection with extensive listening for enhancing listening skills (Elk, 2014; Park & Cha, 2013; Takaesu, 2017; Wingrove, 2017); a means for improving the confidence and quality in delivering public speaking and the intonation of university students (Chang, & Huang, 2015; Kusuma, 2017; McGregor, Zielinski,

Meyers, & Reed, 2016); a useful resource to promote vocabulary instruction (Nurmukhamedov, 2017; Uemura, 2016). This article contributes to filling a gap in the literature relating to how TED talks might be exploited for teaching business English to pre-experienced language learners.

Potential learning values of TED talks in the EFL classroom

Berk (2009, p. 2) distinguished 20 potential learning outcomes of authentic videos, such as movies, TV programs, commercials, and music videos in the classroom, which contribute to "energizing or relaxing students for learning exercise, drawing on students' imagination, improving attitudes toward content and learning, building a connection with other students and the instructor, increasing memorization of content". However, Berk's list does not exhaust the learning values of using TED talks in the EFL classroom.

Immersion in authentic English

TED talks are not originally produced as language teaching material, which means they serve an authentic real-world communicative purpose. Ciccone (1995, p. 205) underlines that "authentic video makes linguistic input more comprehensible by embedding it in a context of extra linguistic cultural clues that assures the transmission of meaning even when complete grammatical and lexical decoding is not likely to be achieved". For language teaching purposes, TED talks are reconsidered in a way to be pedagogically sound. They are beneficial for a monolingual university environment, which does not contribute to the development of foreign language proficiency outside the classroom.

TED talks are also authentic as the speakers' native language is not always English, which is exactly what EFL students are likely to encounter in real-life situations. "Videos expose students to authentic materials and to voices, dialects, and registers other than the teacher's and provide cultural contexts for the studied foreign language" (Chung & Huang, 1998, p. 553). This is also useful for English language learners because it may help them to realize that they do not have to be afraid of the way they speak English.

The personalization of learning

From the point of view of English teaching methodology, the use of *Business English with TED talks* facilitates the personalization of learning, which is defined as an instruction that is paced to learning needs, tailored to learning preferences, and to the specific interests of different learners (Bray & McClaskey, 2015). Personalization gives learners a sense of ownership and relevance. Personalized learning is about teachers working with students to customize instruction to meet the student's individual needs and interests (Kucirkova & FitzGerald, 2015). Students with a lower level of English proficiency can progress through the material at their own speed. They have an opportunity to repeatedly return to the studied material until it becomes clear, use subtitles and transcripts of TED talks, slow down the recording, choosing their own pace of work.

Providing a model for learner output

Authentic video provides a good model for specific language items or a general pool for students to pick and choose from (Sherman, 2003). Having seen the model on video, learners can then produce their own version of the original. Learners usually have access to video cameras on their phones; the result can be an actual video. TED talk speakers may serve as role models for university students in terms of the development their presentation skills, as they use various public speaking techniques, visual and verbal supports to capture the attention of the audience.

Inspiring and motivating students

Bray & McClaskey (2015) consider that learners want to be engaged with content and they want to learn more about something they are interested in. Stognieva (2018) claims that the content of the instruction tailored to learning needs and specific interests increases the motivation for learning a foreign language, which results in the rise of English language proficiency. TED talks that correspond to the students' interests stimulate their language use and improve other aspects of communication, providing interesting and motivating ideas.

Developing learner independence

Different students have different learning strategies. A learning strategy is a person's approach to learning and using information. Students use learning strategies to help them understand information and solve problems. Learning strategy instruction focuses on making students more active learners by teaching them how to learn and how to use what they have learned to be successful (Passov & Kuzovleva, 2010)[2]. While learning English with TED talks, students acquire specific learning strategies depending on the educational goals (with the emphasis on pronunciation, lexical, grammatical, writing or speaking skills, etc.). Learning with TED talks creates opportunities for more decentralized interaction. The teacher's role in this process is more as "a guide on the side than sage on the stage" (Warschauer & Whittaker, 2002, p. 371).

Broaden students' horizons

Using TED talks aims not only at enhancing learners' English language proficiency but also at developing their professional competencies and expanding their outlook by acquainting them with ideas from around the world. "Video brings the outside world into the classroom" according to the National Geographic Learning mission. For example, Knut Haanaes, in his talk, 'Two reasons companies fail and how to avoid them' (2015), shares his insights on how to strike a balance between exploration and exploitation and explains how to avoid two major strategy traps. The real life context creates a meaningful learning environment and provides language learners with the opportunity to perceive new ideas in a foreign language.

Criteria for Selecting TED Talks

Selecting quality materials includes determining the degree to which they are consistent with the goals, principles, and criteria of the course curriculum. It is important to consider the teaching-learning context within which specific materials will be used (Berk, 2009). Well-defined selection criteria help more accurately choose and effectively utilize TED talks for achieving educational aims. Figure 1 illustrates the criteria for TED talks included in the resource book, *Business English with TED talks*.

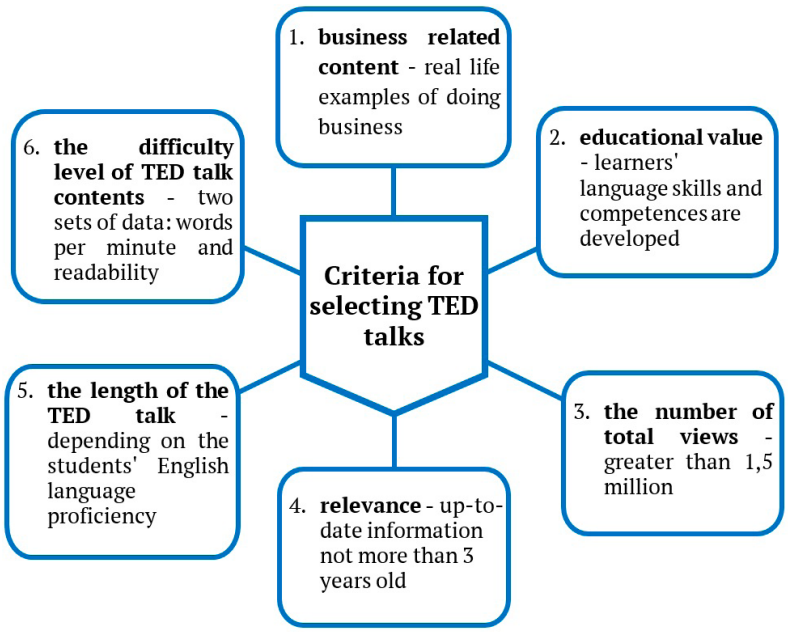

Figure 1. The selection criteria for 'Business English with TED talks'.

The talks, which were selected for the course 'Business English with TED talks', should meet the following criteria:

[2] Passov, E.I., & Kuzovleva, N.E. (2010). A lesson of a foreign language: Handbook for a teacher of foreign language. Moscow, Russia: Glossa-Press.

1. The content of the TED talks should be relevant to the reason for showing the video, that is, to be solidly embedded in a meaningful context, satisfy the professional interests of the students and provide real life examples of doing business in an international environment.
2. The content of the TED talks should have an educational value. The problems discussed should develop the learners' linguistic and professional competencies and expand their outlook by acquainting them with business practices from around the world. The sequence of TED talks should fit in with the overall goals of the course, introduce or expand on a theme that is already part of the curriculum (Ciccone, 1995).
3. The popularity of the TED talk is measured in the number of views. The view count gives a reflection of how the audience responded to the information provided. In Business English with TED talks we selected talks with more than 1,5 million views.
4. The TED talks selected should provide relevant, up-to-date information and topics, which are interesting and motivating for the learners. Content older than 3 years was excluded.
5. The length of the TED talks should be determined by the students' language proficiency. Teachers might explore talks of different durations as set by TED.com (0-6 minutes, 6-12 minutes, 12-18 minutes, and 18+ minutes). With low-level students, for example, a lengthy video material with many tasks could be discouraging. If EFL students are not yet familiar with lengthy transcripts then the shorter ones might work better for them.
6. The difficulty level of TED talk content can be determined by using Ted Corpus Search Engine (TCSE) (Yoichiro, 2015). TCSE is a free online search engine specializing in exploring transcripts of TED talks. It has been created for educational and scientific purposes. The database is big enough even though the number of talks might be less than displayed on TED.com. Figure 2 shows data from this corpus for two videos from the list in Table 1 below.

Figure 2. The data from the TCSE.

Two sets of data from TCSE are helpful for the video selection: words per minute, which determines the rate of speech, and readability, which indicates how difficult a passage is to understand (the higher the number the easy the text). Teachers may use this corpus to find data that support their selection from TED.com. They will be able to choose the level of content that is consistent with the students' language skills. For B1 students, *Sample 1* (with the very slow speech tempo - 131 words per minute and readability of 60.47) might be a good option to start with, whereas *Sample 2* (with very fast speech tempo - 209 words per minute and readability of 52.73) is a more challenging video that might fit the course for more advanced students.

Taking into consideration the above criteria, the following TED talks were selected for the course:

Table 1
Compliance of TED talks with the selected criteria

	Title	Business related content	The number of views	Date	Length (min)	Words per minute	Read-ability
1.	'How China is changing the future of shopping' (by Angela Wang)	Advantages of shopping via mobile platforms	1,588,583	2017	13:38	Slow	Difficult
2.	'How I became an entrepreneur at 66' (by Paul Tasner)	It is never too late to start a business	1,900,037	2017	6:44	Very slow	Difficult
3.	'How to build a business that lasts 100 years' (by Martin Reeves)	Principles from living organisms for businesses resilience	1,953,066	2016	14:41	Very slow	Very difficult
4.	'The future of money' (by Neha Narula)	Digital currencies transforming the world	2,174,843	2016	16:03	Slow	Medium
5.	'The single biggest reason why startups succeed' (by Bill Gross)	Five key factors for startup success	5,961,403	2016	6:27	Very fast	Difficult
6.	'Two reasons companies fail — and how to avoid them' (by Knut Haanaes)	Balancing between exploration and exploitation	1,946,192	2015	10:25	Very slow	Easy
7.	'Uber's plan to get more people into fewer cars' (by Travis Kalanick)	Behind Uber's business idea	1,728,823	2016	19:05	Fast	Very Easy
8.	'What really motivates people to be honest in business' (by Alexander Wagner)	Inside the economics, ethics and psychology of business	1,475,406	2016	13:14	Medium	Medium
9.	'Why jobs of the future won't feel like work' (by David Lee)	Keeping relevant in the age of robotics	1,782,252	2017	9:52	Very fast	Difficult
10.	'Why the best hire might not have the perfect resume' (by Regina Hartley)	Some tips for human resources executives	3,661,229	2015	10:15	Very slow	Very difficult

The content of all the ten TED talks satisfies the professional interests of our Business Informatics students, provides real life examples of doing business, has educational value and is up-to-date. The other two criteria vary in terms of the length of the recording, the difficulty level of TED talk contents and might satisfy different teaching and learning needs.

The structure of a TED talk lesson

Each lesson has a regular structure:

Warm-up	introduces the topic and target language of the lesson, sets the atmosphere and the expectations of the lesson.
Vocabulary	section introduces new words, their use and provides practice for the students.
Listening	section aims at developing various types of listening skills applying the strategies of a successful listener.
Reading	section aims at developing various types of reading skills applying the strategies of a successful reader.
Speaking	section aims at discussion and response to the content of the TED talk.
Writing	section responds to the content of the TED talk and reflects students' personal reactions in applying the conventions of academic writing in English.

A more detailed lesson structure is described in Table 2.

Table 2
TED talk lesson structure

Lesson structure	Types of activities	Teaching aims
Warm-up	1. Discuss the following questions with your partner.	• to set a suitable context; • to activate students' relevant prior knowledge
Vocabulary	1. Match the words with their definitions 2. Practice the words online (www.quizlet.com) 3. Fill in the gaps with the new words in the appropriate form 4. Study the two lists of words; match the words in the box with similar meaning. 5. Complete the crossword or find the words from the lesson in the word search box. (www.proprofs.com)	• to familiarize students with the new vocabulary units; • to help them to memorise the vocabulary units; • to practice specific language points, items of grammar and vocabulary; • to engage students in the learning process and reinforce the vocabulary units
Listening	1. Watch the TED talk and make notes. Decide on the effective method of notetaking (such as the Cornell method, the outlining method, the mapping method, the charting method). These are given to the students as prompts prior to the lesson) 2. Using your notes, answer comprehension questions	• to practice note taking skills; • to practice listening for gist (general comprehension); • listening to learn (content-based input); • to practice using notes
Reading	1. Reconstruct the summary of the TED talk by selecting the right sentence to fill each gap in the text from a list of options 2. Complete the summary of the TED talk with the words from the box in an appropriate form; 3. Read the summary of the TED talk and choose the most suitable heading for each paragraph from the list of the headings 4. Read the script of the TED talk and make notes about advantages and disadvantages (of some phenomenon); 5. Fill in the table with the specific information indicated in the script of the TED talk; 6. Read the script of the TED talk and fill in the time line (reconstructing the order of events)	• to employ a variety of reading skills including • prediction, reading for gist, scanning and intensive reading; • to make use of contextual clues to infer meanings of unfamiliar words from context
Speaking	1. Using your notes reconstruct the TED talk with your partner. 2. Reproduce the talk to another student. In pairs, or in small groups, discuss questions reflecting the debatable issues in the TED talk. 3. For example, Are you for or against…? Why? Do you agree … ? How do you understand … ? What if …?	• to stimulate discussion and response to the content of the TED talk; • to use appropriate communication strategies to participate in group and class discussions

Writing	1. Write an essay (200 - 250 words) about one of the most important issues discussed in the TED talk 2. What does the graph introduced in the TED talk show? Summarize the information by selecting and reporting the main features. 3. Summarize the main ideas of the TED talk. 4. As a project task, write 10 questions for an interview with a business person. Conduct the interview and report in your essay on your findings.	• to develop academic writing skills in the production of various types of essays, such as summaries, descriptive , analytical, comparison/ evaluation and argument writing; • to generate ideas from the TED talk to develop content and support it with relevant details

The distinctive feature of *Business English with TED talks* is that each lesson includes activities that are aimed at the development of all integrated skills: reading, listening, speaking, writing. The need for integrated learning is explained by the patterns of foreign language acquisition - the more senses involved in language learning, the more successful the results will be. If the students have the opportunity to watch and listen to the material, read it, discuss it and write about it, the assimilation of a foreign language is significantly increased (Passov & Kuzovleva, 2010).

The TED talk is treated as a conversational text, which serves a meaningful content base for all the lesson activities. The students should not only comprehend and retell the main ideas of the TED talk, but by expressing their attitude to the content of the text, they should respond to various tasks using vocabulary units and language models learned from the current lesson, as well as the vocabulary units learned from previous lessons. Due to the combination mechanisms, vocabulary skills are developed.

The sample lesson presented in the Appendix is an example of how the approaches described above can fit a 90 minute lesson. A written assignment may be given to the student as homework. Obviously, any part of the lesson can be modified to suit each teacher's or each classroom's needs. The piloting of *Business English with TED talks* took place in the 2017-2018 academic year while teaching Business English course (ESAP module) at the Business and Management Department of the National Research University Higher School of Economics, Moscow, Russia.

Other resources for supplementing TED talk lessons

Special attention in *Business English with TED talks* is given to vocabulary acquisition and practice. Some vocabulary activities are created at the free websites www.quizlet.com and www.proprofs.com, which is advantageous for teachers and students. It allows teachers to expand the restricted classroom time and it allows students to strengthen their vocabulary skills with appropriate guidance. *Quizlet* is as an effective memorization tool to assist students' learning. It offers a variety of learning modes, such as creating flashcards, typing what you hear, generating random tests, matching terms and definitions, typing while memorizing. *ProProfs Quiz Maker* has a wide variety of templates to choose from; users can easily create quizzes to meet their individual needs. *Quizlet* and *ProProfs Quiz Maker* do not require the installation of software and both of them can be operated in mobile devices. They are fun and motivating for students.

Conclusion

This article illustrates some benefits that can be gained from using TED talks for university students, studying Business English. Bacon and Finneman (1990) commented that learning to deal with authentic input is the true measure of language proficiency. TED talks, as an authentic EFL resource, can enhance exposure to English language, promote authentic vocabulary and develop the four integrated skills: listening, writing, reading and speaking. For university students, it is important that, along with the language itself, they acquire skills that will be useful in their future career, such as extracting information, analyzing problems, producing summaries and reports, describing bar charts and graphs. TED talk content is beneficial for overall professional development. Through authentic models of effective communication, students build fluency to achieve academic and personal success.

TED talks can be used for creating customized lessons for university students studying not only business but also other subjects such as computer studies, marketing, design, medicine, psychology. There are more than 100,000 videos on a wide variety of subjects and the number grows daily.

TED talks should be selected according to the proposed criteria (professionally relevant content, language value, the number of views, date) to fit with the overall goals of the course. First, the subject of the course should be identified and the scope of lessons determined. The outlined lesson design and the types of activities corresponding to the teaching aims, including other resources, should be developed. Finally, the lesson should be piloted in the classroom to ensure that it is well designed and adapted if needed.

There are some limitations. First, given the complexity of the whole task and the vastness of the Ted talk collection, time must be spent in order to prepare well-structured lessons. In using TED talks, a lot depends on the teacher's determination, creativity and lesson planning skills (to decide how to use, where and when to embed them). Secondly, technical resources are required, which may not be available in every teaching context. Nevertheless, TED.com is a valid resource for teachers seeking to enhance their lessons with authentic, topical content. Future studies could compile quantitative data to investigate the educational value of teaching with *Business English with TED talks* on the students' language output and estimate to what extent the consistent embedding of lessons based on TED talks result in developing listening, reading, writing and vocabulary skills of the university students.

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Appendix

The single biggest reason why startups succeed[3]

What is the secret ingredient for startup success? Most people reckon that a great idea is the most important element. However, *Idealab* founder Bill Gross corrects this faulty assumption. His analysis of 200 companies, including some landmark successes as well as notable failures, reveals that timing is everything. Gross's findings could not come at a better time for today's ambitious entrepreneurs and venture capitalists.

In this lesson, you will learn:

- Why many high-potential startups fail;
- What five factors influence the chances of a startup's success;
- Which of these elements is the most important in determining a startup's fate.

The video for this lesson is available at https://www.ted.com/talks/bill_gross_the_single_biggest_reason_why_startups_succeed

Warm-up

Discuss the following questions with your partner:

- What is a startup?
- What do you need to create a startup?
- Would you like to found a startup in the future?
- Why do startups have high rates of failure?

Vocabulary

1. Match the words with their definitions:

1. to account	a newly established business
2. adaptability	the quantitative relation between two amounts showing the number of times one value contains or is contained within the other
3. attribute	the act of doing or performing something, especially in a planned way
4. broadband	a period when the economy of a country is not successful and conditions for business are bad
5. business model	the income generated from sale of goods or services, or any other use of capital or assets, before any costs or expenses are deducted
6. competitor	the extent to which a product, idea, etc., gains popularity or acceptance
7. customer	an organization engaged in commercial or economic competition with others
8. execution	a high-capacity data transmission technique using a wide range of frequencies, which enables a large number of messages to be communicated simultaneously
9. funding	the quality of being able to adjust to new conditions
10. penetration	a design for the successful operation of a business, identifying revenue sources, customer base, products, and details of financing

[3] Gross, B. (2016). The single biggest reason why startups succeed. Retrieved from https://www.ted.com/talks/bill_gross_the_single_biggest_reason_why_startups_succeed

11. ratio	selecting the best time or speed for doing something in order to achieve the desired or maximum result
12. recession	a person or organization that buys goods or services from a shop or business
13. revenue	money provided, especially by an organization or government, for a particular purpose
14. startup	the extent to which a product is recognized and bought by customers in a particular market
15. timing	to think of someone or something in the stated way
16. traction	a quality or characteristic that someone or something has

2. *Practice the words online https://quizlet.com/_4h1bt0*

3. *Study the two lists of words. Match the words in box with similar meaning:*

1	2
customer	characteristic
recession	company
account	financing
attribute	client
adaptability	propagation
competitor	decline
funding	rival
startup	performance
penetration	judge
execution	flexibility

4. *Fill in the gaps with the words from Ex.1. in the appropriate form:*

1) I believe that the _____ organization is one of the greatest forms to make the world a better place.
2) That company came out right during the height of the _____ when people really needed extra money.
3) Then I looked at the _____. Sometimes companies received intense amount of financing. Maybe that's the most important thing?
4) It was too hard to watch video content online in 1999 because _____ was too low.
5) I think business model is not so important because you can start out without it and add one later if your _____ are demanding what you are creating.
6) Uber is an incredible company with incredible _____ and great execution, too.
7) Timing _____ for 42 percent of the difference between success and failure.
8) Team and _____ came in second, and the idea actually came in third.
9) We thought that *GoTo.com* succeeded because the idea was so great, but actually, the _____ was probably more important.
10) If you are underfunded at first but you are gaining _____, it is very easy to get intense funding.

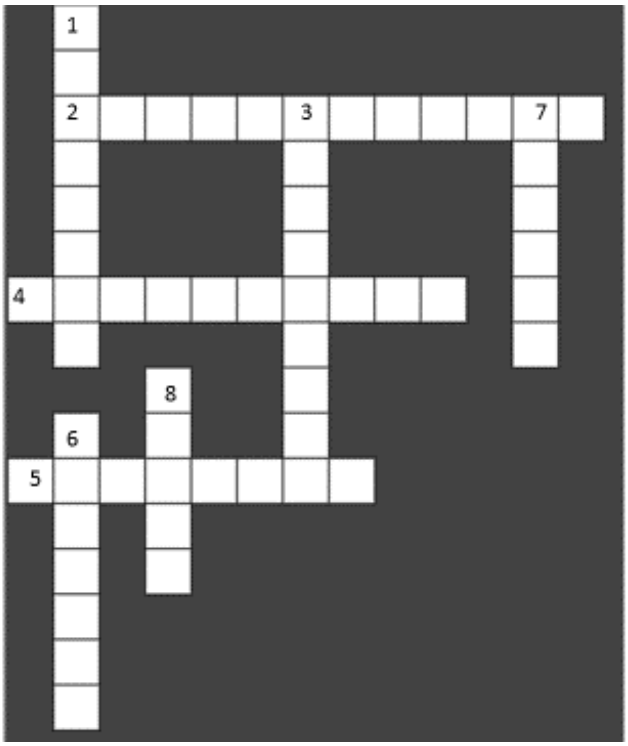
5. *Solve the crossword. You may complete the task online following the link https://www.proprofs.com/games/crossword/the-single-biggest-reason-why-startups-succeed/ or in your course book:*

Across

2. A quality of being able to adjust to new conditions
4. An organization engaged in commercial or economic competition with others
5. A person or organization that buys goods or services from a shop or business

Down

1. The extent to which a product, idea, etc., gains popularity or acceptance
3. A quality or characteristic that someone or something has
6. Money provided, especially by an organization or government, for a particular purpose
7. The selecting of the best time or speed for doing something in order to achieve the desired or maximum result
8. The quantitative relation between two amounts showing the number of times one value contains



Comprehension

1. *Watch the TED talk and make notes. Decide on how you are going to make notes.*
2. *Using your notes, answer the following questions:*
   1) What age did Bill Gross, the *Idealab* founder, start his first business? What was it?
   2) What other businesses did he start?
   3) What factors determine a company's success or failure?
   4) What did Bill Gross mean by quoting the boxer Mike Tyson: "Everybody has a plan, until they get punched in the face"?
   5) What was Bill Gross's research based on?
   6) How many companies did he analyze in total?
   7) What are the findings of his research?
   8) What specific examples can illustrate his findings?
   9) Why does Bill Gross believe the startup organization is one of the greatest methods to make the world a better place?

Reading

1. *Read the summary of the TED talk and reconstruct the text by selecting the right sentence to fill each gap in the text.*

   A. Surprisingly, team and execution ranked second, and idea ranked third.
   B. Or could funding – having enough money to see the idea through to fruition – be the deciding factor?
   C. The startup organization is one of the greatest forums to make the world a better place.
   D. At first, Gross believed that the essential characteristic of a winning firm was a great idea.
   E. Broadband penetration was still too low, and watching videos online made for a poor user experience.
   F. The timing for Airbnb could not have been better.

Why do some companies succeed while others fail? *Idealab*, a business incubator, has supported more than 100 startups over the past 20 years, including many overwhelming triumphs and disappointing duds, which places Bill Gross, CEO of *Idealab*, in an ideal position to investigate the secret of success. Gross analyzed 100 *Idealab* companies plus 100 external companies in an effort to determine which of five factors – idea, team, business model, funding and timing – exerts the greatest influence on the fate of a new business. **(1)** Over time, he began to think that the team and idea execution were more important than a great concept. After all, once a product or service goes to market and consumers begin to weigh in, execution is critical. But perhaps the business model – the way a company monetizes its idea – determines the destiny of a firm. **(2)** Or how about timing? Many great ideas fail simply because they were ahead of their time or came too late.

The companies in Gross's sample included runaway successes such as *Citysearch, NetZero, Tickets.com, Airbnb, Instagram* and *Uber*. It also included spectacular failures: companies with strong funding and a clear business model, such as *Pets.com, Friendster* and *Webvan*. Gross's analyses found that the deciding factor in the success or failure of these businesses was timing. **(3)** A startup's funding and business model are not initially integral to the success of a business because enterprises can launch and grow without having these two elements in place.

Many investors passed on *Airbnb* because they couldn't imagine that people would open their homes to strangers. Yet the startup launched during the recession when people embraced new ways to bring in income. **(4)** The recession also helped Uber attain success, because so many people were willing to drive to earn extra money. In contrast, *Z.com*, an entertainment company that launched in 1999, was ahead of its time. **(5)** Just a few years after *Z.com* folded, the market was primed for *YouTub*e, which attained huge success with a similar idea. When it comes to startup success, timing is everything, and the best way assess if the time is right for your idea is to ascertain objectively if the consumer is ready.

2. *Fill in the table below with the specific information indicated in the transcript:*

Company	Industry	Reasons it succeeded
Airbnb		
Uber		
Citysearch		
GoTo.com		
YouTube		

Speaking

1. *Using your notes, reconstruct the TED talk with your partner.*

2. *Reproduce the talk to another pair of students.*

3. *In pairs, or in small groups, discuss the following questions:*
   1) Why do many startup organizations fail before they achieve their goal?
   2) Gross's study demonstrates that while having a great idea is important, timing matters the most when launching a new enterprise. Why is this so?
   3) Ron Conway, a notable American startup investor, claims: "Any time is a good time to start a company." Does he contradict Bill Gross's ideas and why?
   4) Guy Kawasaki, a Silicon-Valley based author, speaker and entrepreneur says: "Ideas are easy. Implementation is hard." Do you agree?

Writing

1. *Write an essay (200 - 250 words). Use Figure 1 for additional information.*

2. What is the most crucial factor in determining the success of a startup?

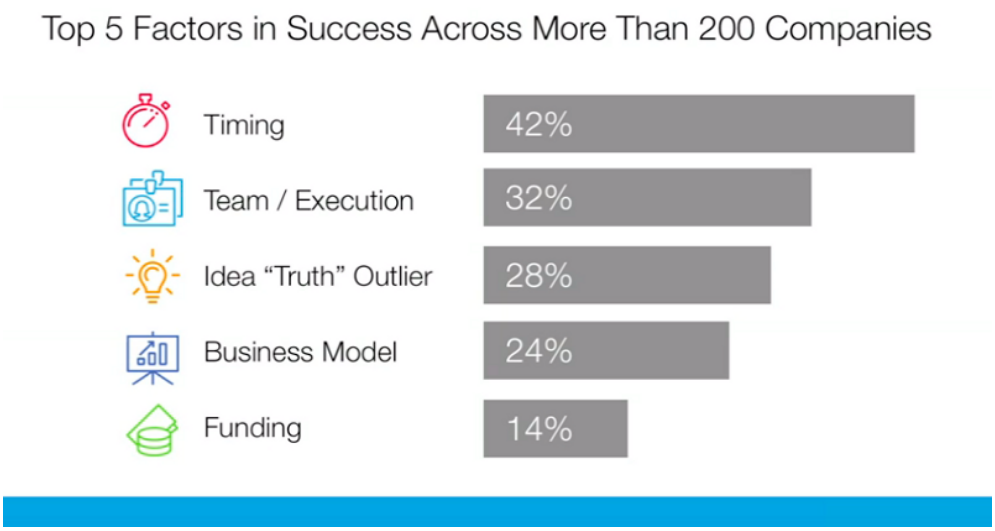


Figure 1.

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Does Communicative Language Teaching Help Develop Students' Competence in Thinking Critically?

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Critical thinking is one of the non-subject related learning goals which students are expected to develop in British education. Undergraduate students are offered to study language through the Institution-Wide Language Programme (IWLP) in the UK and most language teachers use Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Paying attention to these two facts, this study investigates if CLT helps develop students' critical thinking. Using Hofstede et al.'s educational culture as a framework, the underlying pedagogies for both CLT and critical thinking were identified and the similarities and differences are compared. It was concluded that CLT helps to develop students' critical thinking as it shares with critical thinking pedagogies and elements of an educational culture. However, the pedagogy of independence was not shared. It is suggested that language teachers should give students the opportunity to think for themselves during class in order to encourage students' independence using CLT.

Keywords: Communicative Language Teaching, critical thinking, educational culture, higher education, Hofstede's cultural taxonomy

Introduction

Critical thinking is considered essential at the doctoral level in British universities. However, critical thinking for undergraduate students may be considered as "desirable but not essential" among modern language teaching staff (Marin & Pava, 2017) and it is not usually included in language assessment criteria. However, there are language teachers who advocate developing students' critical thinking in language teaching. Some students are equipped with critical thinking and trained to think critically in their previous education, while others are not. The gap in the capacity for critical thinking between the two may be great. On the other hand, in language education, the majority of language teachers have been teaching language using Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Combining critical thinking and CLT, the research question of this paper was formed whether CLT may be able to contribute to the development of students' critical thinking in any way. The purpose of this study is to investigate any similarities or differences between critical thinking and CLT from cultural perspectives.

The definition of critical thinking and CLT will be discussed in the next section, followed by the theoretical framework, before comparing the similarities and differences of the underlying pedagogies of critical thinking and CLT.

Critical thinking

Critical thinking is primarily derived from Anglo-European paradigms (Tan, 2017) and has become a practice developed and promoted by Western English-speaking countries from the 1970s (Vandermensbrugghe, 2004). Its definition has been changing over time. A generation ago, teachers expressed the belief that the development of thinking capability was a by-product of subject-matter teaching and that all we had to do was follow the prescribed curriculum and thinking would flourish spontaneously (Raths et al., 1966). Even at the present time,

its definition has broad parameters and lacks consensus over its meaning. Marin & Pava (2017) investigated university English language teachers' view on critical thinking in the Colombian context. The findings showed that critical thinking is mainly considered as problem solving, which comprises higher order thinking skills. Moore (2013) also conducted interviews with university humanities academics on critical thinking in an Australian context. The findings showed that critical thinking is: 1) judgement; 2) a skeptical and provisional view of knowledge; 3) originality; 4) a careful and sensitive reading of text; 5) rationality; and 6) an ethical and activist stance. In this paper, critical thinking in higher education is operationally defined as: 1) originality/ creativity (Moore, 2013; Bailin et al., 1999); 2) careful and sensitive reading of text and think of beyond the text (Moore, 2013); 3) problem solving (Marin & Pava, 2017); and 4) skills which you can train to obtain (Wasserman, 1987).

CLT

CLT also originates in Anglo Saxon countries (Song, 2019) and is the most recent and frequently employed language teaching approach. The definition of CLT also lacks consensus in its meaning. This is because CLT has been practised for over four decades, during which various developments have taken place. The history of CLT consists of classic and current versions (Richards, 2006, p. 6). The classic, "CLT started in the late 1970s in Europe and gained momentum in the early 1980s. Since then it has taken hold and acquired the status of a new dogma" (Hu, 2002, p. 94). CLT has "the CLT attitude" (Bax, 2003, p. 280), giving the implicit message to language teachers that "a country without CLT is somehow backward… CLT is not only "modern" but in fact the only way to learn a language properly" (Bax, 2003, p. 279): "The Communicative Approach is the way to do it, no matter where you are… CLT will work anywhere – the methodology is king" (Bax, 2003, p. 281). Bax criticises that CLT "assumes and insist that CLT is the whole and complete solution to language learning" and "assumes that no other method could be any good" (Bax, 2003, p. 280).

From its inception, the focus of CLT has been on communicative competence to "produce or understand utterances which are not so grammatical" (Campbell and Wales, 1970, p. 247). A question of whether communicative approach refers exclusively to communicative knowledge or includes grammatical competence was raised. This led CLT to evolve into three perspectives or theories: theory of basic communication skills; sociolinguistic perspective; and integrative theory. The theories of basic communication skills mainly focus on "oral communication to get along in or cope with" (Canale and Swain, 1980, p. 9) and "do not emphasise grammatical accuracy" (Canale and Swain, 1980, p. 9).

Current CLT is the latest development of classic CLT in communicative, grammatical and sociolinguistics competences. Howatt's (1984) "strong" and "weak" forms of CLT are a further development of communicative competence, which distinguishes the aim of CLT is "learning to use English" or "using English to learn it" (Ellis, 2012, p. 196). Byram's (1997) model of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) is a further elaboration of sociolinguistic competence in CLT into the five "savoirs" associated with ICC. There is also a development in grammatical competence related to accuracy and error correction, with "the ultimate goal of learning is to be able to use the new language both accurately and fluently" (Richards, 2006, pp. 22–23).

In this paper, CLT is operationally defined as: 1) a student-centred class (Hu, 2002; Dörnyei, 2009); 2) use of communicative activities such as problem solving, role play, information gap and games (Hu, 2002); and 3) "avoid(s) linguistic correction entirely" (Brumfit & Johnson, 1979, p. 173).

It may sound challenging to compare CLT and critical thinking as one relates to language teaching approach and another relates to thinking and reasoning. However, a comparison of the origin of critical thinking and CLT shows that they both originate from Western, Anglophone concepts. This point is significant as it may imply the reason for similarities. In addition, they seem to relate to culture. Bailin et al. (1999) claim that "critical thinking is cultural artefact" (Bailin et al., 1999, p. 292) and Peter (2008) also argues that thinking and reasoning are not homogenous phenomena and different cultural forms of reasoning and argumentation exist. In previous studies, Winch (2013) investigated CLT using the underlying culture. Therefore, investigating the underlying pedagogies of critical thinking is also anticipated to go through a similar procedure. Thus, it is possible to find a link between CLT and critical thinking using underlying pedagogies.

Theoretical Framework

Geert Hofstede is one of the leading academics on culture (Kirkman et al., 2006; Merkin et al., 2014). Despite some criticism (e.g., Baskerville, 2003; McSweeney, 2002; Spector, Cooper, & Sparks, 2001; Taras & Steel, 2009), "Hofstede's model has been used most often" (Merkin et al., 2014, p. 3). This study utilises Hofstede's framework as a basis of data collection and analysis. Hofstede et al.'s (2010) cultural taxonomy, which consists of five dimensions across two opposing poles, was chosen as the framework for this article. Their categorisation of a particular nationality may be too stereotypical and simplified as the reality is much more complex. Given that today's society consists of people with different heritages and preferences due to globalisation, it is difficult to generalise the cultural preferences of a particular nationality or heritage. However, we cannot dismiss that there is also some truth about Hofstede et al.'s labelling nationalities by culture. Furthermore, having two opposite poles of the spectrum is considered easier to compare and understand educational culture and underlying pedagogies of CLT and critical thinking.

Before introducing the dimensions of culture used in this study, the specific understanding of culture used in this study should be explained. Culture is based on layers such as family, school and corporation. Educational culture, which is the focus of this study, refers to a culture of school or teaching and learning. Educational culture is predominantly created by teachers and students within the classroom. It includes values, beliefs, appropriate behaviour, underlying pedagogies and assumptions on the relationship between the teacher and students and how this guides students to specific behaviour within the classroom.

Hofstede et al. (2010) divide cultures in five dimensions: large vs. small power distance; individualism vs. collectivism; masculinity vs. femininity; strong vs. weak uncertainty avoidance; and long-term vs. short-term. Among these, three dimensions, that is, individualism–collectivism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance are relevant for the focus in this study.

Individualist vs. Collectivist and its Underlying Pedagogy

Individualist and collectivist are defined as "the interests of the individual prevail over the interests of the group" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 91) and "the interest of the group prevails over the interest of individual" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 90), respectively. Generally speaking, Anglophone countries have an individualist society whereas Asian countries have a collectivist society (Dimmock, 2000).

Independence vs. dependence/interdependence. There are two influential key words and philosophers which influence teaching and learning between the West and Confucian countries. In the West, "independence" represents the philosophy of Socrates in the fifth century BC. The goal of the Socratic education is "to lead him (youth) to the truth by means of questioning" (Hinkel, 1999, p. 19). Questioning involves a one-to-one interaction and instruction. Socrates plays a role as "a midwife who helps to give birth to a truth" (Hinkel, 1999, p. 19). In the West where the Socratic pedagogical tradition is preferred, independence is considered important. Thus, overdependence, i.e. utterly dependent they cannot complete a task without help at virtually every step, is considered as inappropriate behaviour in an Anglophone educational culture, but dependence/interdependence may be appropriate in the Confuciun culture where values originated with Confucius in the sixth century BC. Unlike Socrates, "Confucius is asked questions by his students and responds with wisdom" (Hinkel, 1999, p. 19). This fosters a dependent relationship between the teacher and students. Tan (2017) claims that collectivist culture discourages independence and prefers dependence and interdependence. Dependence in teaching and learning values passive students and students' lack of criticality.

One-to-one interaction vs. one-to-whole group interaction. Examples of one-to-one interaction in teaching and learning include pair work, dialogue and tutoring. Pair work and dialogue are interaction between students whereas dialogue and tutoring are interaction between student and a teacher. The strength of interaction between students is that each pair can do their activities at their own pace and level compared whole class instruction. One-to-one interaction also stimulates students' active cognition by keeping students engaged through tailored learning.

Collectivist societies prefers to teach students in a whole class instruction or in groups. The teacher looks at a class as one group and interacts in a collectivist culture. Students educated in this culture are not familiar and

comfortable with student-to-student interaction in class. Often turn-taking is combined with the whole class instruction as it gives equal opportunity to the students in the group.

PD and its underlying pedagogy

Power Distance (PD) is defined as "the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organisations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally" (Hofstede et al*.,* 2010, p. 61). To make this definition easier to understand and specific, the "powerful members" of institutions in a university language instruction context would be language teachers and "less powerful members" would be students. In this context, PD is defined as the extent to which students expect and accept that power is distributed unequally in favor of teachers. It is claimed that "many Asian societies are high PD cultures, while many Western societies have low PD values" (Dimmock, 2000, p. 47). Generally speaking, Western societies do not expect or accept that power is distributed unequally as much as Asian societies do.

Teacher centred vs. student-centred class. A teacher-centred class is a pedagogy consistent with a large power distance educational culture. Teacher centre class used in this study is defined as, "The teacher initiating all communication. Students in a class speak up only when invited to" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 69). Teacher-centred orientation includes conceptions that teaching is about imparting information and transmitting knowledge (Pithers & Soden, 2000). The strength of a teacher-centred class may be that it provides all students with the same educational opportunities for all. A potential weakness of a teacher-centred class is that learning requirements from individual students may be difficult to meet. On the other hand, a student-centred class is pedagogy of small power distance educational culture and usually refers a class where students are expected to take the initiative. Student-centred orientation includes beliefs that teaching is about imparting understandings, promoting conceptual change and intellectual development (Pithers & Soden, 2000). The strength of a student-centred class is to make students more proactive in learning. A potential weakness of a student-centred class is that they may not meet the needs of students who prefer passive learning approaches. Some might learn better by teachers presenting all the necessary important learning points rather than active learning.

UA and its underlying pedagogy

Uncertainty avoidance is defined as, "the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations" (Hofstede et al*.,* 2010, p. 191).

Creativity vs. control. Creativity and control seem to correlate with each other. As control is lessened in teaching, learners" creativity increases. Preference for one correct answer, error elimination and routinisation are pedagogical instruments for a strong uncertainty avoidance culture. The fields of study of mathematics and sciences usually adopt the one correct answer system as a common practice world-wide. It might be possible to say that students and teachers studying mathematics are likely to share a strong uncertainty avoidance culture compared to students and teachers from other departments, such as music and art. On the other hand, creativity and open-ended questions form a pedagogy for a weak uncertainty avoidance culture. An emphasis on creativity in teaching and learning means freedom from control or routine.

In an educational context, if students do not feel comfortable about unknown situations, they prefer a strong uncertainty culture. The Strong Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) scores nations that try to avoid ambiguous situations wherever possible, whereas weak UAI scoring nations are not concerned about any unknown situations. According to Hofstede et al.'s UAI index by countries, Anglophone countries appear to be labelled as weak uncertainty avoidance countries whereas Asian countries are labelled as strong uncertainty avoidance countries. However, as Hofstede et al.'s model has been criticised as "essentialism" (Godwin-Jones, 2013), it should be emphasised that there are various types of people with different perspectives and beliefs regardless of wherever they live. For example, some people may have already succumbed to strong uncertainty avoidance educational culture and others may have already learned to be dependent on the thinking of others and may falter when asked to function on their own initiative.

These three dimensions and their underlying pedagogies became the framework of the comparison between CLT and critical thinking. This study was stimulated to answer the research question, "Does CLT help develop students' critical thinking".

Materials and Methods

Materials

The data regarding the educational culture (specifically individualist-collectivist, power distance and uncertainty avoidance) and underlying pedagogies of CLT and critical thinking (CT) were collected from a total of 50 journal articles (JA) and books (B) from the field of Linguistics, English Language, Education, Psychology, Social Studies, Business Studies and Management (See Appendix 1). The dates for these studies range between 1972 and 2019. This study does not involve human participants.

Methods

Underlying pedagogies were chosen to be the mediums to identify educational culture of CLT and critical thinking. Educational culture and underlying pedagogies, especially, in critical thinking and CLT, are currently under-researched areas. Many studies related using Hofstede's cultural taxonomy have been conducted in International Business studies and Management (Kirkman et al, 2002). By cross-relating the literature data and educational culture and its underlying pedagogies on three dimensions, it is possible to identify the underlying pedagogies and educational culture of critical thinking and CLT, related to the research questions. The definition of critical thinking and CLT discussed in the first part of this article is used throughout this article.

Procedure

The procedure involved a two-tier indirect investigation. The first stage used the journal articles and books mentioned above, with the aim of identifying the characteristics or underlying pedagogies in CLT and critical thinking. Identifying underlying pedagogies enable us to determine the educational culture of critical thinking and CLT. It is an indirect method as identification of educational culture is via underlying pedagogies. Statements which match with each underlying pedagogy (e.g. student-centred or teacher-centred, independence and one-to-one interaction, creativity or correct answers) related to critical thinking and CLT were scrutinised in 50 journals and books. These results will be summarised according to each dimension (individualist-collectivist, power distance and uncertainty avoidance). In the second stage, the similarities and differences of the underlying pedagogies and educational culture between CLT and critical thinking are compared and analysed, which will be presented with a table in the Results and Discussion.

Results and Discussion

This section discusses the findings of underlying pedagogies of CLT and critical thinking, which also reveal their educational culture.

CLT

Winch (2013) investigated the underlying pedagogies and educational CLT by comparing traditional teaching and CLT. This section is based on Winch's (2013) findings. CLT adopts the following dimensions of educational culture: small power distance, weak uncertainty avoidance, and individualism. These are justified and supported with evidence of CLT"s underlying pedagogies (e.g. student-centred or teacher-centred, independence and one-to-one interaction, creativity or correct answers).

Firstly, CLT resembles a small power distance culture claimed as "student-centred CLT (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 41) "is firmly opposed to teacher dominance in the classroom" (Hu, 2002, p. 95). Thus, student-centred orientation is an underlying pedagogy of a small power distance educational culture. In most language class, teacher tells students to practise talking with their partner, which is demonstrated student-centred class. Secondly, CLT is a characteristic of Hofstede's weak uncertainty avoidance culture because it values creativity. Some of CLT"s favourite tasks include problem solving and role playing (Hu, 2002), which give students opportunities to do creative role play or creative ideas in dealing with a problem solving task.

In addition, CLT's characteristics include a tolerance for errors, which implies the weak uncertainty avoidance culture: for example, "learners are not being constantly corrected. Errors are regarded with greater tolerance" (Littlewood, 1981, p. 94). CLT "avoid(s) and linguistic correction entirely" (Brumfit & Johnson, 1979, p. 173). This is consistent in speaking and grammar skills: in speaking, "errors are tolerated and seen as a natural outcome of the development of communication skills" (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 127), in grammar, it "does not emphasise grammatical accuracy" (Canale and Swain, 1980, p. 9).

Thirdly, CLT focuses on an individual student, thereby making it a culture of individualism. In language classes, students usually work on these activities in pairs in CLT. This gives students a one-to-one interaction. For example, one of the CLT's favorite activities, information gaps, is ideal to do in pairs.

Critical Thinking

Weak UA: fallacy of correct answer, tolerance for uncertainty and creativity. According to Hofstede et al. (2010), the underlying pedagogy of a weak uncertainty avoidance culture in school is: "students are comfortable with open-ended learning and concerned with good discussion", "teachers may say "I don't know"" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 208). On the other hand, the underlying pedagogy of a strong uncertainty avoidance culture at school includes: "students are comfortable in structured learning and concerned with right answers" and "teachers are supposed to have all the answers" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 208). "Correct" and "open-ended" answers are associated with "control" and "freedom", respectively. Control is an educational cultural value of strong UA. Examples of controlled pedagogies include one-correct answer type questions (multiple choice and True/False questions), routinisation, rehearsed activities, rote learning, recitation, and strong discipline. Surprisingly, "control" pedagogy existed in American schools before 1860 to develop intelligent mass citizenship (Oaks, 1985). On the other hand, underlying pedagogy of weak UA is "freedom". "Freedom" pedagogy is demonstrated by open-ended learning, open-ended questions and creativity. From the above discussion, a one correct answer system represents an underlying pedagogy of strong uncertainty avoidance culture and creativity represents an underlying pedagogy of weak uncertainty avoidance culture.

Three weak UA pedagogies are discussed related to critical thinking: 1) "fallacy of right answers"; 2) "tolerance of ambiguity and uncertainty"; and 3) "creativity". As for point 1, the "fallacy of right answer" (weak UA) is included in one of eight fallacies in teaching critical thinking (Sternberg, 1987), which supports the link between fallacy of right answer and critical thinking. Pithers & Soden (2000) assert that students are unable to enhance critical thinking if they are unable to "tolerate ambiguity and uncertainty". Thus, the link between "tolerate ambiguity and uncertainty" (weak UA) and critical thinking is addressed in point 2. Similarly, the link between creativity (Weak UA) and critical thinking is addressed in point 3 as follows: "critical thinking often requires imagining possible consequences, generating original approaches and identifying alternative perspectives. Thus creativity plays an important role in thinking critically" (Bailin et al., 1999, p. 288). From these three examples, critical thinking is associated with a weak UA.

Small PD: student-centred orientation. The underlying pedagogy of power distances is either a teacher-centred or a student-centred class (Winch, 2015). The underlying pedagogy of a large PD is a teacher-centred class, which considers that "teachers are gurus who transfer personal wisdom", "students treat teachers with respect" and "teachers are expected to take all initiatives in class" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 72). On the other hand, the underlying pedagogy of a small power PD is a student-centred class which considers that "teachers are experts who transfer impersonal truth", "students treat teachers as equals" and "teachers expect initiatives from students in class" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 72).

The role of a teacher and students in a student-centred and a teacher-centred classroom is different. In a student-centred class, "teaching is about facilitating understandings, promoting conceptual change and intellectual development" (Pithers & Soden, 2000, p. 247). The role of the teacher in the Socrates education is described as "midwife". The teacher's "midwife" role nowadays is referred to as the "facilitator", as Sternberg (1987) states that "we must let students teach themselves to a large extent. We need to serve not strictly as teachers, but as facilitators" (p. 459).

On the other hand, the role of the teacher in the Confucian educational system is described as a "transmitter". Confucius education is summarised as follows:

> Confucius is asked questions by his students and responds with wisdom. Rather than a midwife who helps give birth to a truth that lies within, he is a messenger who transmits the wisdom of the ancient (Hinkel, 1999, p. 19).

In a teacher-centred class, teacher"s role in learning is considered important which emphasises the "transmission" model, i.e. "teaching is about imparting information or transmitting structured knowledge" (Pithers & Soden, 2000, p. 247). It is unlikely to develop students' critical thinking in the translation model as "more completely they accept the passive role imposed on them, the more they tend simply to accept to the world as it is" (Freire, 1972, p. 47). "Students" automatic thinking closure is likely to occur when the teacher doesn't give the student a chance to think; when the teacher does the thinking by showing or telling the pupil what to do; when the teacher cuts off the student's response" (Wassermann, 1987, p. 464).

On the other hand, a student-centred class is the pedagogy of small PD and related to critical thinking. According to Pithers & Soden (2000), "The student-centred orientation is more consistent with approaches for developing student thinking" (Pithers & Soden, 2000, p. 247). This supports the link between student-centred orientation and critical thinking. To create student-centred class, a teacher should play of the role of a facilitator: "we need to serve not strictly as teachers, but as facilitators" (Sternberg, 1987, p. 459).

Individualist educational culture: dialogue and independence. Where sensitivity to the individual is considered of paramount importance in a society, one-to-one instruction, interaction and independence are an ideal individualist culture pedagogy. Dialogue and tutoring are examples of one-to-one interaction. Mason (2008) implies the link between dialogue and critical thinking as follows: dialogue with others, who are different, with different worldviews and cultural backgrounds, is essential feature of critical thinking.

Critical thinking is discussed using two pedagogies: dialogue and independence. Dialogue provides one-to-one interaction/instruction and represents the underlying pedagogy of individualist educational culture. The link between critical thinking and dialogue is demonstrated by Bailin et al. (1999) who state: "critical thinking very often takes place in the context of persons thinking things through together by means of discussion and dialogue" (p. 289). Dialogue gives students opportunities to encounter other views, which may present challenges to the students' own perspectives. The strength of interaction between a student and a teacher is when the teacher uses a critical questioning approach with a student, which is characterised through the verbalisation of thought process using Vygotskian notion of language as a tool for thought (Ryan & Louie, 2007). This challenge also leads to acceptance of multiple perspectives, comparing similarities and differences. Critical thinking confirms students' dogmatism, i.e., convincing that their belief is correct. An example of students' lack of criticality relates to independence. If students are encouraged to depend on a teacher who transmits knowledge, students do not think for themselves and blindly believe teachers and textbooks that they never make mistakes.

The link between critical thinking and independence is demonstrated as follows: "students must learn to teach themselves" (Pithers & Soden, 2000, p. 243); "students must ultimately teach themselves, for they must be responsible for finding out what methods of problem finding and problem-solving work for them" (Sternberg, 1987, p. 459). Independence is the preferred value in individualist cultures. However, students' critical thinking may not be valued in the collectivist societies due to collectivist educational culture.

Table 1
Comparison of CLT and Critical Thinking

	CLT	**Critical thinking**
Power distance (PD)	Small PD (Student-centred)	Small PD (Student-centred)
Uncertainty Avoidance (UA)	Weak UA (Creativity)	Weak UA (Creativity, fallacy of correct answer, tolerance for uncertainty)
Individualist vs Collectivist	Individualist (One-to-one interaction, pair work)	Individualist (One-to-one interaction, dialogue) (Independence)

To summarise the educational culture and underlying pedagogy of critical thinking, it adopts a Small PD, Weak UA, and Individualism. With regards to the PD dimensions, critical thinking adopts a Small PD as it has two

underlying pedagogies of Small PD: student-centred class and teacher's role as a facilitator. With regards to UA dimensions, critical thinking adopts weak UA as it has three underlying pedagogies of tolerance for ambiguity, the fallacy of the right answer and creativity. With regards to the individualism *vs.* collectivism dimension, critical thinking adheres to individualism as it has an underlying pedagogy of dialogue and independence.

As for the similarities of educational culture and underlying pedagogies, individualism, weak uncertainty avoidance and small power distance were shared in all dimensions between CLT and critical thinking. If there are more similarities than differences, more strongly we can say that CLT helps develop students' critical thinking. All underlying pedagogies in the three dimensions were shared between CLT and critical thinking with an exception of a pedagogy of individualist dimension. In individualist culture dimension, one-to-one interaction (pair work) and one-to-one instruction (dialogue) were shared between CLT and critical thinking, both of which belong to individualist culture. In the UA dimension, "creativity" was shared between CLT and critical thinking, which belongs to weak UA dimension. Furthermore, "tolerance for error" in CLT and "tolerance for ambiguity" in critical thinking were considered similar pedagogy and they were shared between CLT and critical thinking. In the PD dimension, student-centred orientation was shared in both CLT and critical thinking, which belong to small PD. The only pedagogy which was not shared between CLT and critical thinking was "independence" in critical thinking, which belongs to individualist culture. Only critical thinking has independence, but CLT did not share it.

Conclusion

The research question of this paper was whether CLT helps to develop students' critical thinking. It is possible to conclude that CLT helps to develop students' competence in critical thinking, considering the similarities and differences between critical thinking and CLT from the above discussion.

However, independence was not clearly shared between CLT and critical thinking. Teachers who support the role of "midwife" give students opportunities to think, to overcome uncertainty, to use creativity and to think on their own. This process is also called problem solving. On the other hand, teachers who support the role of "transmitter" give students the answers straight away and may hinder students' independence by not giving students opportunities to think. Students who are spoon-fed in learning are not given the opportunity to think for themselves. Students' independence is not encouraged in teaching and learning where the transmission model is preferred. However, respect should be given to different educational cultures which have different approaches to learning and each culture has developed specific systems for disciplining thinking skills and teaching approaches.

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Appendix 1

List of studies

	Study	Type		Journal name
1	Moore, T. (2013)	JA	CT	Studies in Higher Education
2	Hofstede et al (2010)	B	Theoretical framework	
3	Dimmock (2000)	B	IND	
4	Hinkel (1991)	B	IND	
5	Pithers & Soden (2000)	JA	PD	Educational Research
6	Sternberg (1987)	JA	PD	Phi Delta Kappan
7	Freire (1972)	B	PD	
8	Wassermann (1987)	JA	PD	Phi Delta Kappan
9	Godwin-Jones (2013)	JA	Cultural framework	Language Learning & Technology
10	Oaks (1985)	B	UA	
11	Tan (2017)	JA	CT	Journal of Philosophy of Education
12	Raths et al (1966)	JA	CT	
13	Marin & Pava (2017)	JA	CT	English Language Teaching
14	Song (2019)	JA	CLT	Asian Culture and History
15	Hu (2002)	JA	CLT	Language Culture and Curriculum
16	Dörnyei	JA	CLT	Perspectives
17	Brumit & Johnson (1979)	B	CLT	
18	Bailin et al (1999)	JA	CT	Journal of Curriculum Studies
19	Winch (2013)	B	CLT	
20	Winch (2015)	JA	PD	International Journal of Education and Literacy Studies
21	Kirkman et al (2006)	JA	Theoretical framework	Journal of International Business Studies
22	Merkin et al (2014)	JA	Theoretical framework	International Journal of Intercultural Relations
23	Baskerville (2003)	JA	Theoretical framework	Organizations and Society
24	McSweeney (2002)	JA	Theoretical framework	Human Relations
25	Spector, Cooper & Sparks (2001)	JA	Theoretical framework	Applied Psychology: An International Review
26	Vandermensbrugghe (2004)	JA	CT	International Education Journal
27	McGuire (2007)	JA	CT	Asia Pacific Education review
28	Ryan & Louie (2007)	JA	IND	Education Philosophy and Theory
29	Tan (2015)	JA	IND	Education Philosophy and Theory
30	Cortazzi & Jin (2010)	C	CT	Conference paper
31	Mason (2008)	B	CT	
32	Turner (2006)	JA	CT	International Journal o Management Education
33	Evers (2008)			
34	Ennis	JA	CT	Theory Into Practice
35	Murawski (2014)	JA	CT	Journal of Learning in Higher Education
36	Larsen-Freeman (2000)	B	CLT	
37	Cho & Kim (2018)	JA	CLT	TESOL Journal
38	Humhries & Burns (2015)	JA	CLT	ELT Journal
39	Christopher (2012)	B	IND, PD	
40	Chalmers & Volet (1997)	JA	CT	Higher Education Research & Development
41	Brumfit et al (2005)	JA	CT	International Journal of Applied Linguistics
42	Flores et al (2012)	JA	CT	Educational Philosophy and Theory

43	Paul (2005)	JA	CT	New Direction for Community Colleges
44	Littlewood (1991)	JA	IND, CT	
45	Ford et al (2004)	JA	CT	Social Work Education
46	Ford et al 2005)	JA	CT	Social Work Education
47	Barnett (1997)	B	CT	
48	Zhao, Pandian & Singh (2016)	JA	CT	English Language Teaching
49	Chaffee (1992)	JA	CT	Journal of Developmental Education
50	Mok (2010)	JA	CT	The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly

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Science Culture, Language, and Education in America: Literacy, Conflict, and Successful Outreach by Emily Schoering. New York, Palgrave Macmillan, 2018. 145 pp. ISBN 1349958131

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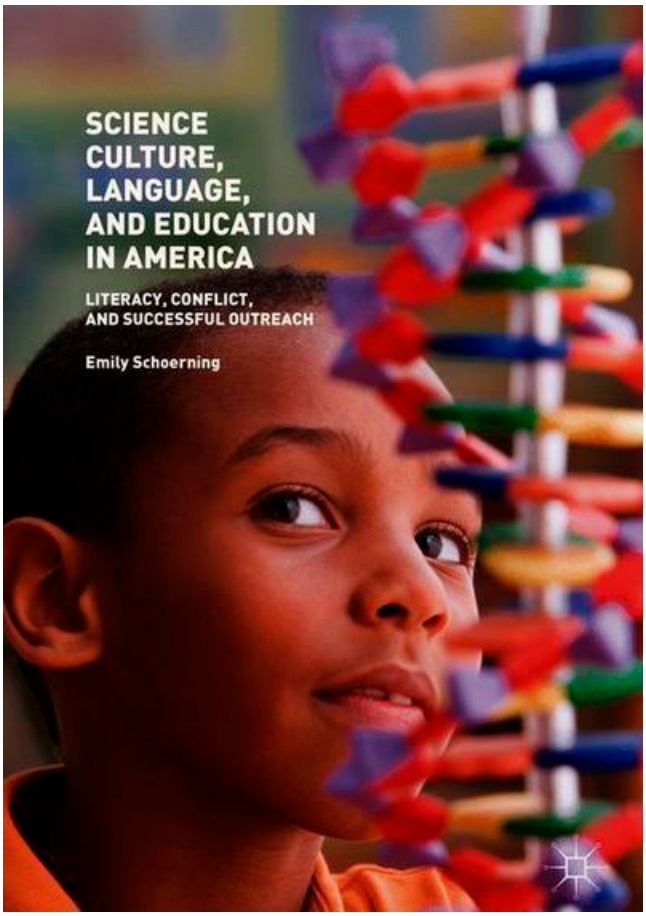
Schoerning's (2018), Science Culture, Language, and Education in America: Literacy, Conflict, and Successful Outreach, addresses the issue of science classes in American schools and gives insights into pedagogical approaches to better develop and cultivate science cultures. The book is based on theories that conceptualize and explain science culture in American schools and examine power dispersion when it comes to science literacy and workforce. By the same token, this book also conceptualizes the relationship between science and religion and how both could reach a compromise. The book provides a profound and insightful explanation and analysis of science classrooms, along with the language and culture of science learning. The author makes clear how these environments operate to either further marginalize or advocate for minority groups in schools. This text is a valuable asset in a time when U.S. schools are emboldened by the detectable increase in the cultural and linguistic variance of their students. It enlightens readers, educators, and policymakers on the dynamics of the most effective science classrooms, along with valuable suggestions to be implemented in practice. The book consists of an easily comprehensible six chapters, thorough references, and an index.



In the first chapter, "Where Are We Now? Where Could We Be?", Emily Schoerning offers a detailed account of the state of science classrooms in America today, and describes how power is at play when it comes to marginalized groups in these classrooms. To achieve more desirable learning outcomes, the author argues that science should be authentic, and that it should be reflective of real-life circumstances and experiences. Schoerning argues that in order to achieve equal learning opportunities, the language ideology that surrounds science should be altered and educators should allow students more space to leverage their linguistic repertoire. The question this raises concern

among educators is that since the STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math) fields generally yield higher pay for professionals, why aren't more students of marginalized or protected populations striving to proceed in the scientific workforce (Schoerning, 2018)? This is a crucial inquiry that still requires contemplation and investigation.

In Chapter Two, "The Culture of Classroom Science: Discourse, Dialogue, and Language Practices", the author provides solutions through which educators can allow students to hone in on and properly access the culture of science, instead of just focusing on teaching the language. Schoerning equipped educators with an insightful and practical approach for developing successful science classes. Students should be immersed participants who plan their own learning style, propose their inquiries, and be the active agents of their own science experiments. Schoerning argues that this approach bridges the achievement difference between males and females, and minority and majority groups. It also promotes students' higher cognitive demands, and allows for educational equity through their access of power and agency. As such, the author advocates for students to gain authority as much as their teachers.

In Chapter Three, "Nature of Science Misconceptions: A Source of Cultural Conflict", Schoerning continues to show the discrepancy between science culture and the actual approach in classrooms. The author criticizes the traditional approach, which is characterized by "memorization" (p. 31). However, she also highlights that unquestionably traditional science has produced great scientists, whose influences are of great importance in the field. Schoerning claims that the transition from the traditional science approach to an approach that is more process-based will not be an easy one.

With Chapter Four , "Culture and Conflict: Science and Social Controversy", the author continues to show how power is at play in one way or another by demonstrating that most of the beliefs people hold about science are due to some sort of authority. She talks about how misconceptions in science often become re-enforced in children's learning development via "[…] a substantial degree of authority" (Schoerning, 2018, p. 47). The author's main goal is not to criticize such misconceptions; instead, she is arguing that educators should stay critical and develop an awareness of the origin of common science misconceptions. It is vital that, in early childhood education, learners get to know what causes certain misconceptions or occlusions of fact so that later on in life students can comprehend why they are defending or opposing such beliefs installed in themselves. The author uses the figure of the firefighter as a useful example of how or why we build senses of authority when we are young. The crux of this chapter lies in an emergent question: Can we eliminate these misconceptions in our pedagogical approaches? The vast majority of these misconceptions commonly found in science education were taught to us by trusted authority figures, both inside and outside of schools. Realizing later in life, as adults, that we have been influenced by inaccuracies and misconceptions from our schooling makes us question our sources of knowledge. Schoerning argues that such misconceptions are historical, emotional, and socially constructed. Our misconceptions are normalized and internalized to an extent that we don't even realize that we have them. Hands-on activities help students demonstrate how older, commonly held misconceptions are incorrect. The author proposes an emotional approach to address these gaps in knowledge and the misconceptions that have spawned them.

In chapter five, "Science and Religion: Meshing and Conflicting Worldviews", the author strives to show that the conflict between science and religion is not recognized in classrooms often enough, and while the issue may come up in popular media outlets, it is more commonly discussed amongst science professionals. This chapter also shows that people who avoid scientific argument fear social conflict more than they fear scientific conflict. Schoerning also shows how religion and science could live in harmony, which in turn would create a promising platform for more fruitful pedagogies in teaching the sciences.

The sixth and final chapter of this text, "A Case Study in Transforming Communities: The Science Booster Club Program", contains a case study about a woman who established the foundations of the Science Booster Program Club (SBC) that has contributed greatly to developing a science culture that would, "…educate people about what had been seen as highly divisive topics" (Schoerning, 2017, p. 71). The focus of Chapter Six is to show that there is a gap in the literature when examining women in the science workplace and research; however, the study neglected women who are single mothers and financially unsupported. This case study makes up a substantial proportion of Schoerning's text, yet it illuminates critical issues within the process of science learning.

The principal endeavor of this text is to look closely into the learning ecologies of American science classrooms and mine for new approaches that promote autonomy, authority, and agency amongst science learners. The organization of the chapters and the subsections within each chapter give the book a comfortable sense of flow for better comprehension of the in-depth analyses of science classes, approaches, challenges, and opportunities for future growth. Instead of applying the clutter of in-text citation, Schoerning provided a list of the references used at the end of each chapter.

The question of power was at play throughout the book, whether this power was informational, cultural, or authority-based. White males have largely dominated the field of science in the United States, and if our science professionals intend to be reflective of our thoroughly diverse national population, the teaching of strong science models to minority and protected groups in American schools needs to be a focal point for the educators of today and of tomorrow. Schoerning should have gone into greater depth with regards to the intersectional loci at which the world of science touches the world of politics.

Finally, while the author could have invested more space in the actual techniques by which science educators can help reverse and abolish the scientific misconceptions of the past, this text is still a valuable resource for educators and researchers who are looking to build pedagogy that is both pragmatic and progressive, and tailored to our culturally, linguistically, and economically diverse science classrooms. Schoerning's distinct efforts are appreciated for providing outstanding merit not only for educators and policymakers but also for graduate and undergraduate students in the educational field to comprehend and delve deep into the culture of science in American schools. Also, Schoerning's book is a great standing point for readers to get the basic overview of the dynamic of the culture of science in American schools.

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